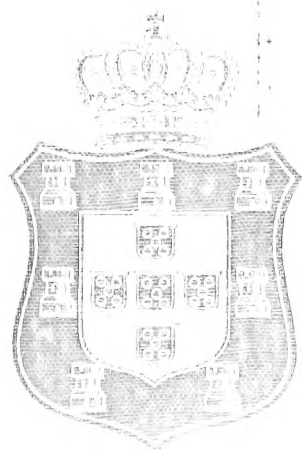
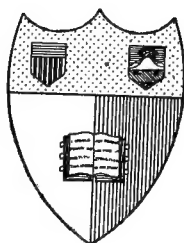


ZAMBEZIA



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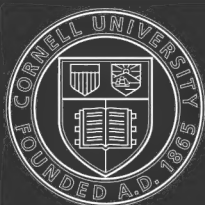
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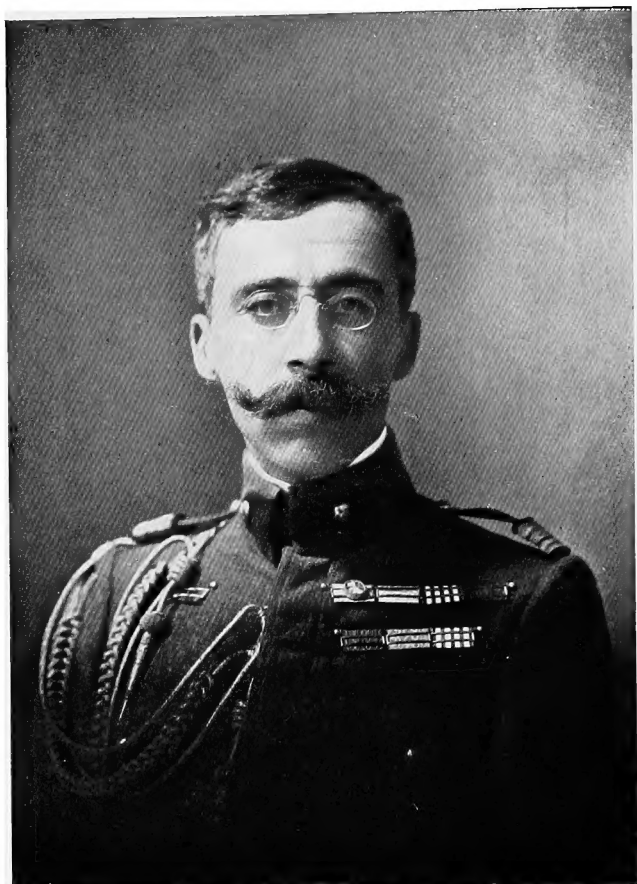


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ZAMBEZIA



HIS EXCELLENCY MAJOR ALFREDO AUGUSTO FREIRE D'ANDRADE, R.E.,
Governor-General of Portuguese East Africa.

[Frontispiece]

ZAMBEZIA

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE VALLEY OF
THE ZAMBEZI RIVER, FROM ITS DELTA TO THE
RIVER AROANGWA, WITH ITS HISTORY, AGRI-
CULTURE, FLORA, FAUNA, AND ETHNOGRAPHY

BY R. C. F. MAUGHAM

H.B.M. CONSUL FOR PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA

AUTHOR OF
"PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA," "A HANDBOOK OF CHI-MAKUA,"
AND OTHER WRITINGS

WITH MAP AND ILLUSTRATIONS

LONDON
JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET, W.

1910

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To

HIS MOST FAITHFUL MAJESTY

DOM MANOEL II

KING OF PORTUGAL

IN PROFOUND ADMIRATION OF THOSE PORTIONS OF
THE SPLENDID DEPENDENCY OF PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
WHICH THE FOLLOWING PAGES BUT DIMLY DESCRIBE
BY HIS MAJESTY'S MOST GRACIOUSLY EXPRESSED PERMISSION
THIS BOOK IS RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED

PREFACE

THE task of writing some account of the Portuguese section of the River Zambezi is one which I first proposed to myself some years ago, and although the work has, for a variety of reasons, progressed but slowly, I have found it much more of a pleasure than a toil, and must confess to having completed the final chapter with a feeling akin to one of regret.

My recollections of the region I have endeavoured to describe are as pleasant as those of my numerous Portuguese friends still labouring in it are cordial, and, consequently, I am not unconscious of a sense of vague misgiving lest I should have failed to convey adequately a reasonable impression of a district in the greatness of whose future I for one have the firmest confidence.

Although I have spent considerable time in gathering together the material of which this book is composed, I fear that the result is only a foundation upon which, I trust, more competent and highly trained observers may one day build. What we know about these regions is, after all, but little as yet. There is still a wealth of interesting and important information waiting to yield itself up to scientific searchers after the secrets of Africa. The

discovery of this information is not, however, to the preoccupied official, nor to the hard working agriculturist; these have their own duties and responsibilities in other directions. If, therefore, a perusal of the following pages should leave a lurking sense of their incompleteness, of a want of smoothness arising from the difficulty I have experienced in dove-tailing together the various component parts, I would ask my readers to be rather indulgent than censorious, for I have, at all events, succeeded in compressing into the limits of a single volume material which might well have proved sufficient for several. In any case I shall feel more than satisfied if I succeed in conveying to students of the great Dark Continent some idea, however dim and incomplete, of the immense value of the splendid district of which Zambezia after all forms but a part.

In the writing of this book I have derived most valuable assistance from Dr. G. McCall Theal's admirable work entitled "The History and Ethnography of Africa South of the Zambezi," as also from the works of Mr. H. L. Duff, Sir Charles Eliot, and Sir H. H. Johnston. The list of birds appended to Chapter VIII has been arranged in accordance with the carefully compiled work of my friend Mr. W. L. Sclater, M.A., F.Z.S., Director of the South African Museum at Cape Town; those of mammals coincide with Sir H. H. Johnston's grouping of the beasts of the neighbouring colony of Nyasaland, whilst my botanical appendices are drawn up largely as the result of my own observation based upon the scheme of my

old friend Mr. J. Abercromby Alexander. My historical chapter has been greatly enriched by the invaluable stores of quaint, old-world information contained in the fascinating work of the long dead Friar João dos Santos entitled "Ethiopia Oriental," and published in Lisbon in 1609.

For photographs, I have pleasure in acknowledging my indebtedness to Mr. J. Wexelsen of Beira, who supplied me with the more important of my views of the River Zambezi, amongst others; to Mr. C. A. Reid; to Mr. J. Lazarus of Lisbon; to Dr. R. Kuenzer, Imperial German Consul in this Province; to Mr. A. T. Long, British Vice-Consul at Lourenço Marques, and to Monsieur René Wuilleumier. Last, but not least, to my secretary, Mr. Johnston B. Sazuze, who, in addition to many official cares, has most painstakingly assisted by typing out my manuscript, my grateful thanks are likewise due.

R. C. F. MAUGHAM.

BRITISH CONSULATE, LOURENÇO MARQUES,
1909

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R.E., GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA

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ZAMBEZIA

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY

I HAVE endeavoured in the following pages to give some account of that portion of the Zambezi, and of the lands washed by its all too shallow waters, which have fallen, in the partition of Africa, beneath the sovereignty of the Portuguese Crown. It is, of course, but a part of Africa's fourth greatest waterway; but, since the lower Zambezi is at present the doorway through which we reach the slowly awakening colonies of Nyasaland and North-Eastern Rhodesia—and even the far-away basin of the mighty Congo—it is with that portion of the river we are at present most concerned, and it will no doubt continue to claim our attention until slowly developing railway enterprise shall one day bring the remoter stretches of the great river within the daily widening scope of the modern traveller.

The name “Zambezia,” properly speaking, is used among geographers to designate a vast district most of which has been granted, as a concession for mineral and agricultural exploitation, to an

influential group of Portuguese and other financiers formed some years ago under the style of the Zambezia Company (*Companhia da Zambezia*), with the object of working these valuable resources. The district of which this great concession largely consists forms also one of the administrative subdivisions of the Province of Mozambique, and has as its capital the town of Quelimane, where resides the Governor of Zambezia, and the chief officials of the administration over which he presides. Quelimane is, therefore, the headquarters of the Zambezia Company, in whose hands, as I have just stated, the economic destinies of the district and its peoples have to a great extent been placed. The importance of the concession mentioned will perhaps be the better understood when it is explained that it contains about 70,000 square miles of territory, and some 1,100 miles of more or less navigable waterways. It is, therefore, on this basis of calculation, rather larger than twice the size of the kingdom of Portugal.

Bounded by the Mozambique Channel on the east, and traversing some seventy miles of coast-line from the Zambezi mouth to the Likungu River, the vast region covered by the Zambezia Company's concession occupies the whole of the enormous area between the sea and the eastern frontiers of the Nyasaland Protectorate as far north as the 15th degree of south latitude. Passing round the southern extremity of Nyasaland, and still following the Zambezi's northern margin, it again widens out until its northern limits march with those of North-Eastern, whilst those in the south coincide

with those of South-Eastern Rhodesia. Its most distant westerly extent follows the eastern shore of the River Aroangwa.

Contained within the territory of Zambezia, situated on the southern bank of the River Zambezi, and still regarded, after the flight of several centuries, as a military settlement of some importance, we find the ancient city of Tete, dating from considerably over four hundred years ago, and still possessing in its massive fortresses and strongly-built houses, interesting relics of a period when every man's house was his castle in a sense which we of to-day would find it difficult to realise. Thence, following the great river up its course to the westward, the only remaining centre of importance in the Portuguese sphere is that of Zumbo on the frontier, at the point of the confluence of the Aroangwa, which possesses neither the importance nor the traditions which to this day invest Tete with such a veritable halo of old-world interest.

The history of this portion of Africa has been in a high degree eventful. So far as the dim echoes of its strenuous past have come down to us, its early occupation reads like a long romance, and there can be little doubt that the hitherto insignificant measure of development accorded to it has been accomplished in the face of difficulties, privations, and dangers which might well have given pause to nations with the greatest passion for colonising, even aided by those indispensable scientific triumphs of latter-day discovery which have done so much of late to assist in combating Africa's countless

hostile agencies. It is due to these triumphs, no doubt, that what we have learned of the economic side of Zambezia's possibilities comes to us for the most part from observers who have laboured in recent years. It is they who have enriched our knowledge of the lands through which the Zambezi flows ; to them we are indebted for data and facts of interest and importance noted, it may have been, in moments of heightened temperature and fevered pulse. Within the last twenty years or so, the somewhat supine air of *laissez aller*, which for so long hung over the Portuguese province, has slowly given way to an activity of which many of my fellow - countrymen living in neighbouring colonies do not dream. It is true that individual effort has not yet played any very active part in this improvement. It has been largely brought about by the efforts of powerful administrative and colonising bodies such as the one to which I have referred. These, placed by the Portuguese Government in possession of the immense areas they control, are now actively engaged in important schemes of cultivation and exploitation. In this great task, moreover, they are now aided by a new class of assistant, doubtless the product of the needs of the period, but still, unhappily, far from numerous. I mean the class of subordinate whose judgment, ripened by some years of administrative employment in Africa, and gained under enlightened superintendence, now offers an excellent, indeed an ideal instrument for the furtherance of interests of an important character.

For this class of man, the three principal local

administrative companies, of whom in a future chapter I shall have occasion to speak at some length, form admirable training schools, and, I suppose, in years to come, they will turn out men whose usefulness will go far to assist in civilising the still existing savagery of the Zambezi Valley.

For many years, the only Portuguese residents might have been regarded as belonging to three principal classes, none of which produced the most desirable material, or indeed any capable of steady, systematic work of the character now so essential. These three classes consisted first of all of the governing body, with its officials of the various departments. Then came the Prazo-holders, and, lastly, the merchant or trader.

The Prazo-holder leased from the State vast areas of land (Prazoes), some only a few hundreds of square miles in extent, others half as large again as the county of York. These were rented by auction as vacancies in their occupancy occurred (indeed such is, I understand, still the practice), the upset price being based upon the number of the native inhabitants living within their limits, and the consequent amount of hut-tax recoverable from them. At present the lessee pays to the Government half the tax received, less a small percentage for cost of collection, retaining the balance himself. In some of the Prazoes of this portion of the province, the annual amount received in payment of this impost was formerly very large, so much so that the old-time lessee, secure of a good income from this source alone, troubled his head but little to observe those con-

ditions of his lease whereby he covenanted to carry out various schemes of improvement within the area allotted to him.

The remaining class I have referred to as one from which the colony derived in the past but little benefit was the former Zambebian trader. This latter type was probably the worst of all. Twenty or thirty years ago, the conditions of life and residence in the Zambezi Valley were perhaps twenty or thirty times worse than at present. It followed, therefore, that such trading houses as at that time carried on business had fewer competitors to contend with, less tiresome, embarrassing regulations to get in the way of their rough-and-ready methods, and far more incitement, arising from deadly climate and daily funerals, to make as much money as possible in the shortest time, and to betake themselves to healthier and more congenial atmospheres at the earliest possible moment. About this time, therefore, large fortunes were in some cases realised, not always, it is to be feared, by means the most legitimate; but the traders of that time were, as I have said, of a rough-and-ready type, whose integrity was elastic, and whose ideas of the fitness of things were bounded by a horizon which stood for gain. These three predominating classes were, unconsciously perhaps, doing the country more injury than they had any idea of. They were taking everything out, and putting nothing back. These were the days of which very old residents still speak reverently, with many a reminiscent sigh, and, I doubt not, many an inward pang at the bitter recollection of opportunities lost,

or snapped up by their more fortunate rivals, who are now leading lives of leisured ease on the continent of Europe.

The end came, of course, as it does to all things. The volume of trade of the sixties and seventies, of which it would probably be hard enough to find accurate details outside the records of the traders of that time, decreased and dwindled as native produce diminished in quantity and became more and more difficult to obtain. One by one the older so-called merchants, for whom slaves were, without doubt, the most profitable articles of export, but to whom nothing came amiss, dropped out, sadly realising that their day was over. A better type of administrator was sent out from Portugal, naturally demanding in his turn a better type of subordinate. Companies were formed to cultivate large areas, and did so; waste lands began to produce sugar, coconuts, and other commodities; and with the effective occupation by Great Britain in the later eighties of those neighbouring colonies now known as Nyasaland and Rhodesia, a method was shown to Portugal whereby she might do likewise, and this we must do her the justice to admit she has not been slow to adopt.

Of course the activity to which the founding of the protectorates I have named gave rise, was at once responsible for much improvement, and this was plainly visible in a very few years upon such portions of the Zambezi and Shiré Rivers as lay upon the routes leading up to them. Still, improvement was a plant which throve but slowly in a country only now awakening from more than

four centuries of death-like slumber, and it was not until fourteen or fifteen years ago that moderately efficient communication with the interior, together with an increasing European population, began to create those needs which rendered better transport and an open waterway imperative necessities. Thenceforward began that transformation in the district of the Lower Zambezi which is so strikingly apparent to any one visiting the country again after a moderately lengthy interval.

From my knowledge and experience of this portion of Africa, gleaned during some fifteen years' residence here, I look upon Zambezia as a region which will do much within the next decade to redeem its unfortunate past, and, I doubt not, finally emerge a possession of which, for its richness and productiveness, if for no other reason, any European Power might well be proud. For such administrative light as Great Britain has introduced into our East and Central African possessions, the nation has had to pay, I will not say dearly, but by liberal grants-in-aid from the Treasury, and it will therefore come as a surprise to many that the Province of Portuguese East Africa should receive no sort of regular subvention to aid her in tiding over moments of financial embarrassment. All the revenues of the great Dependency have been for many years swallowed up by her internal necessities, and have but sparingly sufficed even for these. If we were further to consider the cost of administering from one governing centre the affairs of a colony of such magnitude in a manner comparable to that in which British and other colonies

in Africa are controlled, we should at once find ourselves confronted by an expenditure from which any but the wealthiest among the European Powers might well shrink back aghast. I cannot refrain, therefore, from reflecting that although much has been said and much written regarding the condition of neglect and moral abandonment in which Livingstone and Oswell found the Zambezi in 1851, at that time the eyes of Europe were glancing across the Mediterranean with but a languid interest. They only developed a gleam of covetousness some years later, when, in the partition of the great continent, it was tardily found that occupation at all events, if not actual internal development, formed the indispensable qualification for permanent possession. What did we care for the Zambezi, or, indeed, any other portion of Central or South Central Africa, forty years ago? How many of us at that time possessed an accurate idea as to where these regions lay? It is as though with the awakening of European interest in East Africa as a whole, Portugal struggled hard to fall into line with other colonising nations; and whatever may have been the condition of her East African Colony when, in 1888, light commenced to stream from Great Britain into Mombasa, I should be loth to say that she had not bestirred herself since, and done her best to improve the condition of the Zambezi Valley, as well as to purify the fountains of her entire colonial administration.

The future of Zambezia twenty years hence will wholly depend upon what she does now, and the same is no doubt true of the province as a whole.

There is already regular communication from the Zambezi, through our Protectorate of Nyasaland, to Lake Nyasa, Tanganyika, North-East Rhodesia, and the headwaters of the Congo; and as those remoter regions slowly awake to their responsibilities towards the great scheme of the civilisation of Africa, so must the countries lying along their routes profit by the multitudinous benefits which this civilisation brings in its train.

Thus it will one day come to pass, I doubt not, that the region of Zambezia—its marshes drained, its river banks reclaimed and cultivated, its malaria stamped out, and its administration based upon modern and improved methods—will take its place among the most valuable of African possessions. This, however, is a result only to be achieved by years of patient toil, by the expenditure of large sums of money on agriculture and experiments, and last, but not least, by the sacrifice of European lives. We have even now, as I look at it, done little enough for those portions of the great African continent over which our own flag flies to-day, and every step on the road which leads to the point we have reached is marked by the graves of those who have fallen by the way; but well have they fallen, and all honour should they receive who, at the cost even of life itself, have added their quota, however small, to that great whole which we proudly call the Empire.

Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori.

CHAPTER II

EARLY EAST AFRICA—THE OCCUPATION BY THE PORTUGUESE OF THE VALLEY OF THE ZAMBEZI FROM A.D. 1498 TO THE END OF THE NINE- TEENTH CENTURY

THE position in which the early Portuguese navigators found themselves when, in 1498, their vessels appeared for the first time sailing northward along the East African coast-line was one of some precariousness, and in order that it may be the better understood, a few words on the conditions which they discovered may not be regarded as inopportune.

We must go back some centuries, however, and shortly trace the history of the East African seaboard, and, neglecting its complicated quarrels and stormy episodes of war and rapine, consult the impressions of the first observer, whose manuscript accounts of the events of his day are, I believe, since those of Ptolemy, the earliest records which have been handed down to us. This was Abu el Hassan el Massudi, a native of Bagdad, who in the third century after the hegira became a great traveller, and visited in turn many countries, including South-East Africa.

Massudi's writings are the first from which we

obtain a glimpse of the Indian Ocean of his day ; of the carefully calculated voyages of the vessels, but little if in any respect dissimilar from the Arab and Indian dhows of modern times, which coasted along from Muscat and Oman to Madagascar (Kambalu, or the Island of the Moon, as it was at that time called) on the one hand, and to Sofala and pearl-yielding Bazaruto on the other.

He tells us in simple yet convincing language of the forcible possession by the Arabs of practically the whole of the commerce of the coast, and adds many interesting observations on the habits and customs of the natives occupying the various countries of the lengthy seaboard.

At that time the most important commercial centre was that of Mogdishu, which with Kilwa (Quilwa, as the early Portuguese were accustomed to spell it) was established between A.D. 908 and 975.

Mogdishu, according to Massudi, was founded by the Emozeides (or Ammu Saidi), feudatories of the Sheik of Oman, in A.D. 908. Ancient records state that its founder, Zeide (or Seyyid, meaning prince, ruler), who was apparently a direct descendant of the prophet, possessed religious views of an extremely unorthodox character, and in consequence was forced to submit to the apparently (in those days) inconsiderable penalty of banishment. As in the case of the founder of Kilwa, to whom he may have served as an enviable example, he gathered his adherents around him and crossed over to the African coast. Having founded Mogdishu, Brava, and other settlements to the



AN EARLY PORTUGUESE NAVIGATOR.

south, these people, now known as the Emozeides (or Emozaïdi), were in turn driven out by an incursion of Arabs from Central Arabia, under whose control Mogdishu became a thriving and populous port, the metropolis, indeed, of East African trade.

Kilwa was the second of these towns to be established, since we learn that, about the fourth century of the Mohammedan era, one Ali, a Persian, a son of the Sheik of Shiraz, embarked from Ormuz with a few followers and sailed for Mogdishu. Here, owing to sectarial differences with the Arabs whom he discovered there, who, though followers of the prophet, had adopted certain peculiarities of ritual to which the virtuous Ali found himself unable to conform, he set sail again, and, shaping a course to the south, purchased the island of Kilwa from the natives then residing upon it, and proceeded to establish there a small hierarchy of his own, far from family dissension or religious controversy—a hierarchy of which he was to be at once the ruler and guide. The settlement rapidly grew, as the sound principles and inherent justice of Sheik Ali attracted large numbers of the more peacefully inclined. An imposing fortress was constructed, and houses of timber and thatch gave place to the flat-roofed, stone edifices so characteristic of the East of to-day. It is also stated that the town increased so rapidly in size that soon the slender minarets and shapely domes of its numerous mosques and other buildings gave it the stately yet graceful appearance of a thriving Eastern city.

Our next authoritative observer of the events which crowded thick and fast upon each other on

the gradually awakening Ethiopian seaboard, is a contemplative traveller, a native of Tangier, one Ibn Batuta, who in the middle of the fourteenth century visited the East, and wrote an account of his journeyings in many lands. He speaks of Mombasa and Kilwa, the latter now controlled by the Sultan Hassan, the nineteenth ruler since the founder Ali, doubtless of saintly memory. Batuta speaks highly of this Sultan, and extols his great personal courage and many victories over the barbarous infidel Zanj or Bantu. This word Zanj is also used by Ptolemy, who, as Sir Charles Eliot points out, called Africa Azania. In Arabic the word means simply coast, but its probable true derivation is from the Persian word zang, a negro. The Portuguese usually spelt Zanzibar Zanguebar.

It is, I consider, extremely likely that from the earliest times periodical migrations may have taken place from Arabia, and even Persia, to what is now Portuguese East Africa, by races of which all trace or record is now lost—races who dominated the savage inhabitants of Sofala and the Empire of Monomotapa, and mixed among them and traded and built those ruins which have so exercised the minds of latter-day scientists.

Ibn Batuta tells us that Sofala passed from the suzerainty of Mogdishu to that of Kilwa during the reign of Sultan Suliman—another ruler of Ali's dynasty—and that there commenced a traffic in gold and ivory of a most profitable character, which doubtless continued until the appearance of the Portuguese at the latter end of the fifteenth century.

The same authority speaks of Mogdishu as a

large and important city. He describes a visit which he paid to the Sultan, and which he appears greatly to have enjoyed. In Lee's translation of his writings he describes a visit also to Mombasa, a city which he says abounded with many luscious fruits, including that which he calls the jammoom, similar in appearance to an olive and of great sweetness. Thence he passed to Kilwa, then ruled by the Sultan Abu el Mozaffir Hassan previously mentioned.

As Dr. Theal points out, the forty-third ruler of Kilwa, after the long-dead founder Ali, was one Ibrahim, and from the circumstance that he had usurped the sovereignty in the absence of its rightful heir, he was merely accorded the title of Emir. At this time, moreover, Sofala was a powerful Arab sultanate ruled by one Issuf, of whom we shall hear more anon; and thus, when Vasco da Gama appeared from the south in 1498, Ibrahim still ruled in Kilwa, and the east coast of Africa was divided into a number of states, each presided over by an independent ruler, and each one had in turn to be placated or conquered.

It is, of course, a far cry from either Mogdishu or Kilwa to the Zambezi, but the foregoing *résumé* of the events which led up to the conditions discovered by Vasco da Gama on his arrival are not without interest, as showing the nature of the difficulties which confronted him, and as explaining what has in some circles been characterised as the useless, wanton bloodshed which followed the appearance of these western strangers in the Indian Ocean.

Let us now glance briefly at the events in Portugal which led to the discovery of an ocean route to India and the East.

Prince Henry the Navigator, son of Dom João, then King of Portugal, was apparently the first of his house to realise the importance of establishing communication with India by way of the Cape of Good Hope.

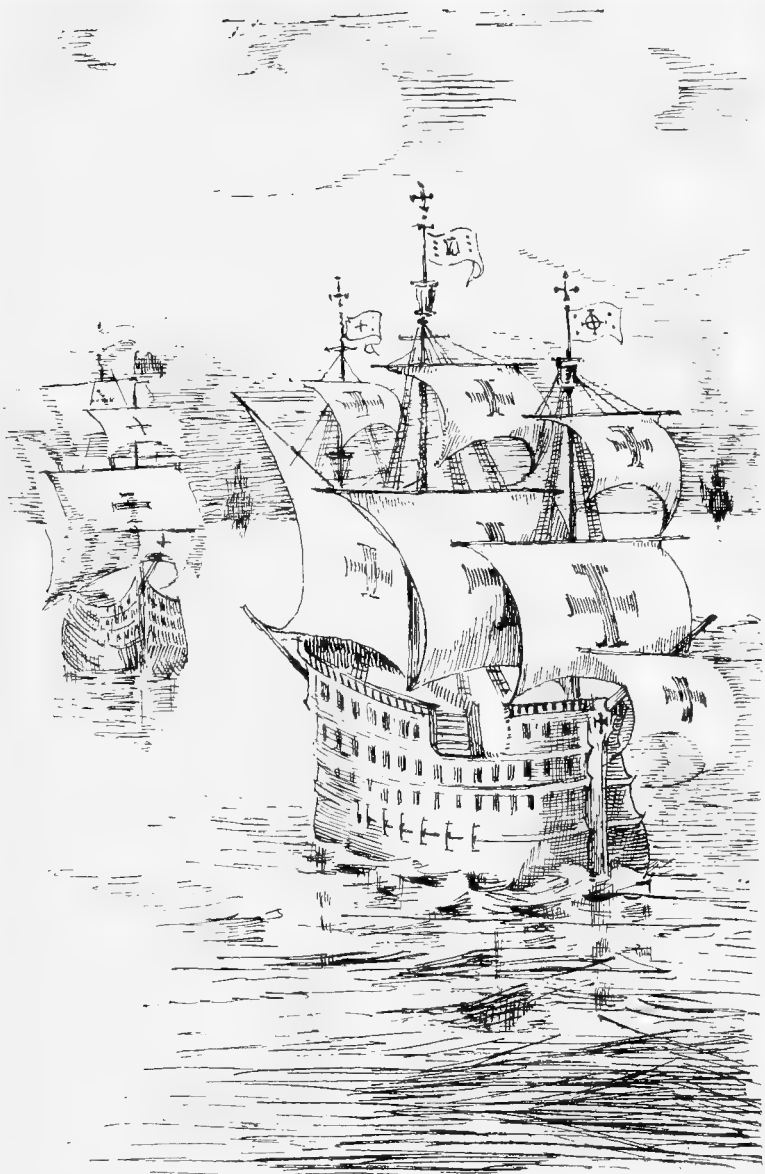
It was as yet only through Turkish territory that the wealth of the Eastern markets found its way to Europe, and this route—namely, through Egypt to Alexandria and thence to Venice—was, it was found, one which so enhanced the cost of the silks and spices and other Oriental merchandise of the period that only the wealthy were able to afford them. Moreover, this route was already regarded with misgiving by merchants, by reason of the distant rumblings of that approaching upheaval which in 1517 was to overthrow the Mamelukes and to convert Egypt into a province of the Ottoman Empire. For many years, doubtless, the trains of camels laden with the luxuries of Asia which crossed to the Mediterranean from the Persian Gulf must have followed a route which was perilous in the extreme, and this was doubtless one of the most important of the reasons which drew the enterprising eyes of the Lusitanian Prince to the route, whose discovery later on was to draw in turn the admiring eyes of all Europe to the small kingdom at the western extremity of the Iberian Peninsula. Little by little his vessels groped their way down the African coast until they crossed the equator in 1471. Ten years later his nephew,

João II., who in the meantime had ascended the throne, enthusiastically bent on carrying out the projects of his illustrious relative, fitted out a fleet, which discovered the Congo and pushed its way south as far as Cape Cross. The next undertaking of the kind was the despatch in 1486 of three small vessels under the command of Bartholomew Dias, the first European navigator to reach the Cape. They were absent from the Tagus for nearly eighteen months, and there is little doubt that the devoted Dias would have forestalled his luckier rival, da Gama, and reached India had it not been for the importunity of his officers and men, who, owing to lack of provisions, insisted on his abandoning the voyage when the "Cape of Storms," as he named it, had been actually successfully doubled.

In the meantime, as we learn from the fine work of the Conde de Ficalho on the subject, King João of Portugal, still thirsting for information, had despatched one Pero da Covilha in search of the dominions of the fabulous Prester John. Passing by way of Naples to Alexandria and Cairo, and thence to Aden, he shipped to Calicut and Goa, and thence took passage for Sofala. Here, it is believed, he heard some news of the passage by his adventurous countrymen of the Cape of Storms, and this may have been the first account of that exploit to reach Europe, since, it would appear, he returned to Cairo, where he met messengers from his royal master, to whom he entrusted important despatches, receiving in return others instructing him to proceed in a new direction on a further quest of the fabled kingdom which it

was his mission to discover. He now wandered away through Ormuz to Abyssinia, where it is said he was detained by force, but being a person of philosophical temperament he promptly married a lady of the country, and ended his days in affluent circumstances.

The news of the discovery of the African continent's southern extremity was received on the return of Dias with the utmost enthusiasm, and only the death of King João in 1495 interrupted the immediate fitting out of a further squadron. Luckily the Duke of Beja, who now ascended the throne as King Manuel I., was to the full as keen as his distinguished predecessors to prosecute at all hazards the important projects which they had so successfully initiated. In 1494, therefore, at considerable cost and with much difficulty, a small fleet of four vessels was specially built for the purpose, under the superintendence of Dias. On their completion, the supreme command was not at once given to Vasco da Gama, but to Paulo, his elder brother. He, however, declined it, and nominated Vasco, then unmarried, and, as we learn, a harsh, stern, passionate individual not yet forty years of age. On July 8, 1497, therefore, the four vessels, consisting of the *São Gabriel*, the *São Rafael* (names still perpetuated in the Portuguese Navy), the *Berrio*, and a store ship, hoisted sail and stood down the Tagus on their great quest. These four vessels are said to have had on board some 170 men, amongst whom a number of criminals were included for the purpose of being landed in dangerous and doubtful places to obtain informa-



THE FIRST VESSELS TO ROUND THE CAPE.

tion or perish in the attempt. The first point on the South African coast at which the vessels anchored, on the 7th of the following November, was the Bay of St. Helena, about 120 miles from the Cape, where observations were taken and water obtained. One or two natives were captured, but nobody could understand their speech. On Thursday, the 16th of the same month, the ships made sail from St. Helena Bay, and two days later came in sight of Table Mountain.

The following two months were spent in cruising quietly along the South African coastline, until, on Christmas Day 1498, the great commander found himself off a point concerning which there is much uncertainty, but which may have been slightly to the north of the Umzimkulu River. This country he called Natal, from the circumstance of his having sighted it on the anniversary of the birth of the Saviour. Continuing onward, the next halt was made at the estuary of the Limpopo, which he called the "Rio dos Reis," or River of the Kings. Here presents were exchanged with the natives, and the mariners and others were hospitably treated. This spot was named the "Terra de Boa Gente," or Land of Good People. It is a long distance to the succeeding point at which the African coast was sighted, but on January 24, 1499, the squadron entered the Quelimane River, which was christened, by reason of the kindness and courtesy of their welcome by the people, the "Rio de Boas Signaes," or River of Good Signs.

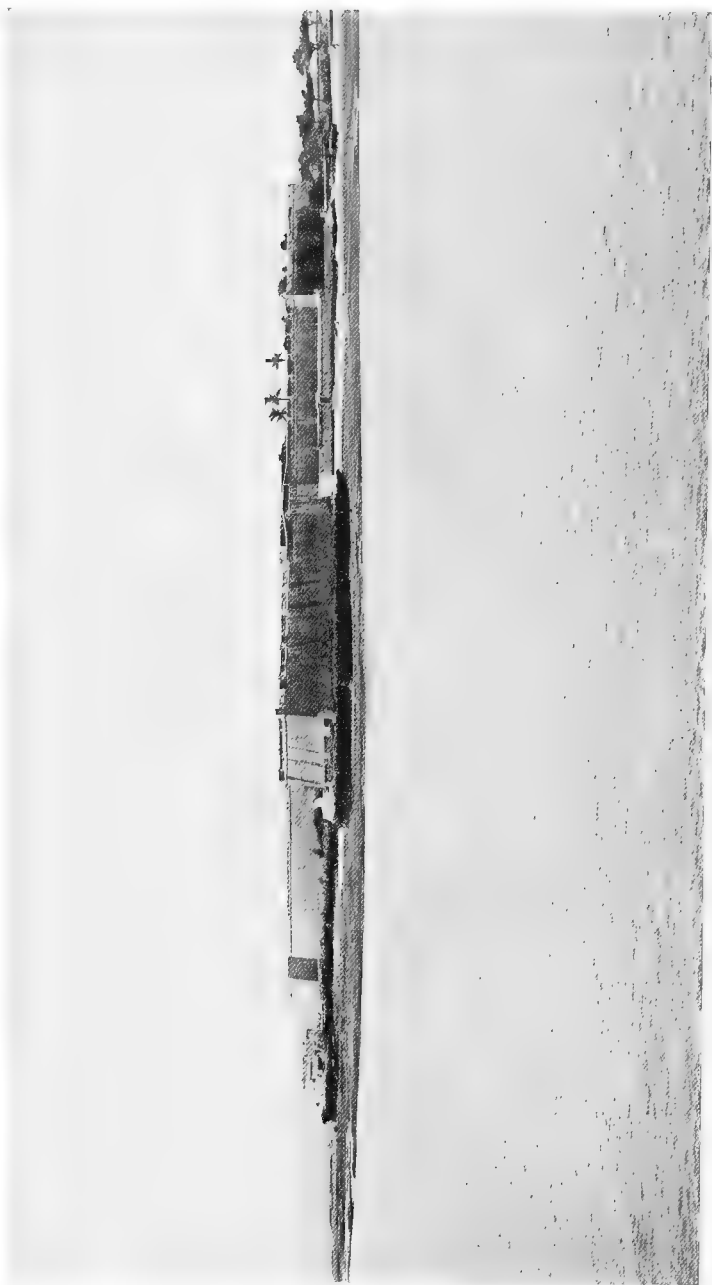
Here, although Vasco da Gama knew it not, his vessels were moored in one of the mouths of the

great Zambezi River, that mighty waterway whose future was destined to be so intimately linked with the expansion of Portuguese influence in this part of Africa. With the remainder of the great navigator's voyage, therefore, we are not concerned. He has shown us the way to the mouth of the Zambezi, and we shall now pass to the consideration of what befell those early pioneers who so shortly followed him.

As we have seen from the facts outlined in the early part of this chapter, one of the most important of the centres of commerce in East Africa was that of Sofala, and the large output of gold and ivory obtained there, and carried thence in fast-sailing dhows to Muscat, Persia, and distant India, had lent that place a celebrity which was soon to reach the ear of the commander of the Portuguese vessels. Not, however, until the voyage to India had been successfully concluded was it found possible to establish relations of a commercial character with a point so distant from the *dépôt* which had been formed at Mozambique. Early in the 16th century, Sancho de Toar was probably the first Portuguese officer to show the national flag at the golden port, and on the arrival at his post of the newly appointed Viceroy of India, the latter gave immediate orders for the construction of fortresses both at Sofala and Mozambique.

The first Capitão-mór* of Sofala was appointed in 1505. This was Pero d'Anhaya, an officer of some distinction, who in that year was sent out from

* A title somewhat difficult to define, but usually meaning "Military Commander."



THE FORTRESS OF SAN SEBASTIAN, MOZAMBIQUE.

Lisbon in command of a small squadron of six ships, which had been specially laden with all the necessaries for the construction of a fortress, as well as merchandise for the "ransom," or purchase of the gold which the country hereabout was confidently believed to contain. Arrived, therefore, at Sofala about the end of the year, no time was lost in carrying out the important object of his voyage.

Pero d'Anhaya's difficulties were many. He had first of all to gain the confidence of the ruling Sheik Issuf, who during a long and eventful life had held the reins of the port's destinies in his crafty hands. At length, after much delicate negotiation, the necessary permission was given to erect a fortress and general dépôt, of which d'Anhaya lost no time in availing himself. Repentance, however, seems to have quickly followed on the heels of this permission, for we are told that Issuf, taking advantage of a moment when the numbers of the Portuguese were greatly reduced by fever, violently and treacherously attacked them. The Arabs with their native levies were beaten off, and, after several days of desultory fighting, it is said that d'Anhaya sallied forth under cover of darkness, and delivered a well-timed counter-attack on the Sheik's dwelling. This he forcibly entered, only to be wounded by a spear which, though half-blind with age, Sheik Issuf flung at him; immediately afterwards, one of the Portuguese, who pressed forward behind his captain, struck Issuf's head from his body with a single sweep of his sword.

The death of the Mohammedan ruler effectually

brought the hostilities to a conclusion, and enabled d'Anhaya to strengthen his position in Sofala to a point which rendered future aggression, either Arab or native, practically impossible. The native trade in ivory and gold which now passed into Portuguese hands was extremely disappointing. Probably as the outcome of long custom, or possibly due to a shyness of the Portuguese which would be characteristic of the native temperament, the latter insisted on continuing to traffic with the Arabs, and for some years the receipts of the newcomers were barely sufficient to balance expenditure, although the profits on European merchandise are stated to have been enormous.

In 1531, realising finally that much of the wealth of the Zambezi was probably shipped from the delta of that river, and thence escaped the vigilance of the custodians of the royal goods dépôt at Sofala, a certain Captain Pegado established a trading centre in the midst of a small Arab community, at a place which was afterwards known by the name of Sena, and is still in existence. About this time the settlement of Tete came into being, although the precise date of its adoption as the scene of Portuguese activity has not been handed down to us—the same uncertainty existing with regard to the discovery by the Portuguese of the “Rivers of Cuama,” as the mouths of the Zambezi were at that time called. In 1544, Quelimane, or São Martinho de Kilimane, as it was then named, sprang into being in the most northerly branch of the Zambezi delta, that stream which had witnessed the arrival of Vasco da Gama

nearly fifty years before, and had, as we have seen, been named by him the River of Good Signs.

With these three ports established, therefore, the Portuguese felt that their commercial aspirations had been placed upon a sound basis, and that trade with the surrounding tribes would soon become a source of fabulous wealth—the wealth which, in anticipation, had roused the enthusiasm of the Portuguese nation, and awakened that craving for suddenly acquired riches which the amazing discoveries of Spain under Cortes on the other side of the Atlantic went far about this time to strengthen and heighten.

In spite of all this, the Arabs, in their light-draught sailing boats and rapid dhows, succeeded in carrying off the greater portion of the gold and ivory with which the natives could be induced to part; for, as is indeed the case to the present day, the Asiatic was the man who sought out the native markets, and there bartered European commodities and those of India and the East. To-day the Arab is gone from these parts of the coast, and his old place on the African seaboard knows him no more; but his latter-day representative, the astute British Indian Banyan trader, whose tactics are almost the same as those of his long-dead prototype in the early days of the Portuguese occupation, is a picturesque figure with which we are sufficiently familiar in every coast town on the East African littoral.

Little by little the Portuguese were asserting themselves; gradually they were pushing their way onward into the interior, when an event occurred

which was to be fraught in the end with the gravest and most lamentable consequences. This was the first attempt on the part of Portugal to evangelise the Kingdom of Monomotapa. In his instructive description of the Zambezi in its sixteenth-century aspect, that observant friar Padre João dos Santos tells us that nearly the whole of the great central table-land south of the Zambezi, from the east coast on the one hand to the confines of Angola on the other, was ruled by a mighty chief who was known and dreaded by the title of Monomotapa. To bring in the teeming millions of the heathen over whom his sway extended, therefore, from the outer darkness of error and superstition into the inner brilliant illumination scintillating from the maternal bosom of holy mother church, was a duty which no devout Portuguese of that long-dead era could possibly see his way to evade. Thus, at the instance of King João III., an earnest young priest named Gonçalo da Silveira, of the Company of Jesus, founded by Papal Bull sixteen years before, left Portugal in 1556 for Goa, and a year or two later, accompanied by a brother friar of the same order, one André Fernandes, proceeded to Inhambane, whence he lost no time in reaching the main town of one of the Monomotapa's lieutenants, a Makaranga chieftain named Kamba (the tortoise). Here they made many converts in a surprisingly short space of time, among them being no less a personage than Kamba himself. All went harmoniously until these dusky proselytes realised the extent of the responsibilities to which they had committed themselves. With a fine disregard of

their undertakings, probably much more real than the light-heartedness with which they had been assumed, they expressed themselves clearly and unmistakably on the subjects of polygamy, witchcraft, war, and the many other habits and customs to which they had been reared, and which they were now pledged to abjure; and finally, the fulminations of the clergy proving somewhat wearisome, the overwrought chieftain cut the gordian knot of his difficulties and Padre Gonçalo da Silveira's throat at one and the same time. Thus it fell that by ignorance of the native temperament on the one hand, and unsatisfied cupidity on the other, the first victim to the spread of Christianity in Africa was sacrificed, and the first missionary expedition to the Dark Continent nipped rudely in the bud.

Thenceforward several years passed uneventfully, until in 1569 an expedition, commanded by that devoted Portuguese soldier and administrator Francisco Barreto, sailed from the Tagus with several ships bound for East Africa, and pledged to undertake a sufficiently serious enterprise. This was nothing less than the invasion and annexation of the empire of Monomotapa. This expedition consisted, it is stated, of no less than a thousand men, and *carte blanche* was given to its commander to avail himself of every possible means to bring it to a successful conclusion. Only the preceding year Dom Sebastião had come to the throne of Portugal at an age when most boys are still in a lower school-form, and that singularly morose youth would appear to have already formed ambitions, of which the annexation of the whole of

South Africa was only an inconsiderable detail. His enthusiasm for the expansion of his over-sea influence reflected itself in the minds of his people, who, in the success of Barreto's expedition, saw not only a just and proper expiation of the sacrilege of Gonçalo da Silveira's untimely death, but, incidentally, a plenishing of the national coffers which a succession of maritime enterprises, not always attended by financial success, had done much in the past to empty. Thus do we see that, even in that era of almost fanatical religious fervour, the benefits to be derived from the spread of the gospel in the haunts of the heathen did not wholly dissociate themselves from the value of the discoveries which might be made in the process.

Barreto was rather over a year in reaching Mozambique from the Tagus, and wasted another in unimportant expeditions to the north of that port, when, suddenly realising that the blood of the murdered priest must be getting rather tired of calling out for vengeance, he marshalled his troops and proceeded to the Zambezi in November 1571—quite the hottest and worst season he could possibly have selected for the purpose. With immense labour, and admirable steadfastness, he succeeded in reaching Sena with 600 arquebusiers, a park of artillery, a baggage train of 25 waggons, and several hundred camp followers and porters. Envoys were immediately sent to the Monomotapa, as the sacrilegious Makaranga chieftain had come to be called, who, having been informed of the arrival of Barreto's imposing force, was now, it would appear, the prey of uneasiness hard to dissimulate.

Dr. Theal, in his admirable history of South Africa, gives an interesting account of what took place. He says the envoy had several attendants with him, and before him went servants carrying a chair and a carpet, which was spread in front of the place where the chieftain reclined, surrounded by his councillors and headmen. The Portuguese envoy, richly dressed and armed, introduced the subject of his mission, which consisted mainly in obtaining right of way to the gold-fields of Manica and Batua, and in the formation of an offensive alliance against the Mongas, who dwelt above the Lupata gorge on the southern bank of the Zambezi, and were probably the ancestors of Makombe's people, who until recently occupied the Barué, and of whom we shall hear more anon. Other authorities state that, in addition to the foregoing, the Portuguese agent also stipulated for an indemnity for the murder of the ill-starred Gonçalo, and the expulsion of those *bêtes noires* the Arabs. To all these conditions, we are told, the Monomotapa joyfully acceded; but when it was suggested that he should embrace the Christian faith in addition, his patience exhausted itself, and he boisterously refused.

In the meantime, the expedition under Barreto encamped at Sena was passing through nerve-shaking experiences. Owing to the unhealthiness of the climate, and those causes of which we are still to some extent ignorant, his men commenced to die daily of fever, and his animals were decimated by horse-sickness and fly. The chaplain who accompanied him, a monk named Monclaio, the recorder of what took place, filled with religious

intolerance of the doubtless innocent Arabs who had made Sena their home many years before, lost no opportunity of accusing them of poisoning the grass the horses ate, and of destroying the Europeans with their Mohammedan enchantments. The Captain-General for a long time refused to pay heed to the churchman's denunciations, but at length, alarmed by the constant and increasing mortality, he ordered all the Asiatics to be seized and put to the torture. In these cases there is always one weaker than the rest, and the poor wretch on this occasion, unable to bear the agony of the screws, confessed to having seen poison put down, and, in short, admitted all the offences with which he and his luckless countrymen were accused. Some of these were, therefore, burned at the stake, others impaled, or put to death by torture, whilst the rest, we are informed, were blown from the mouths of cannon.

About this time—probably whilst his representative was engaged in his negotiations with the Chief of the Makaranga—Barreto undertook an expedition against the Mongas, and appears to have inflicted great loss upon them and reduced them to submission, but at the expense of many lives which he could ill afford. In the course of this expedition he was attacked, in the only serious encounter fought, by an immense horde of the enemy, preceded by an aged female *mabisalila*, or witch, who muttered damaging incantations as she advanced. Believed to be impervious to human weapons, her unlooked-for death from an arquebus ball was a rude shock to her followers, who, it is said,



THE ORIGINAL GATEWAY AT SENA.

actually carried ropes wherewith to bind their enemies when they should be overthrown. With loud cries of "San Thiago," the Portuguese poured in a volley from their matchlocks and cannon, which so stupefied the natives that, believing all the devils in hell had thrown in their lot with these pale-faced invaders, they promptly flung away their arms and fled. Many villages were burned, and the savage destruction of life was very great, but when Barreto's officers came to call their muster rolls it was found that his own losses amounted to over sixty men.

In spite of this, however, the Captain-General now continued on up the river in quest of the legendary silver mines of Chicova, and what befell this ill-fated attempt is best described by the monk João dos Santos, whose enthralling description of the Zambezia of that far distant day was published in Portugal in 1609. I translate a portion of Chapter XIV. which, conserving so far as possible the quaint phrasing of the period, reads as follows :

"In the country which borders the kingdom of the Monomotapa towards the inland region looking to the north-east, is the kingdom of Chicova greatly renowned for its mines of fine silver which follow the course of the Zambezi. After the journey of the Governor, Francisco Barreto, which I have herein set down, he passed up the rivers of Cuama [the Zambezi—*Trans.*] with all his people to lay hands upon the mines of Chicova. On the way he made war upon the Mongas beneath the hills of Lupata. These he conquered, as I have shown

you, and thence, voyaging by the kingdoms which extend to the river side, none daring to offer him hindrance, Francisco Barreto with the soldiery and followers arrived at length at the kingdom of Chicova, where he fortified a large encampment. Then began they all to seek for silver, but none was found, since the cafres, for dread lest they should lose their country if the mines were made known to the Portuguese, dared not point the places out. For fear of this the cafres fled, so that not one remained who could be taken and by force or the torture made to discover the silver to us.

“At length a negro, moved thereto by the large promises of reward the Governor had made, resolved to show to him some pieces of silver taken from the true mines, but buried in another part of these lands, saying and pretending that where it should be found there the mines lay. Thus did he, and going secretly by night with some pieces of silver of four or five pounds each, he buried them in a distant place.

“The next day, it being afternoon, he came to the Governor almost at sunset and told him he would disclose to him secretly the place of the mines, covenanting that he should receive certain cloth and beads as his reward. These the Governor promised him with great joy, and for his contentment gave orders that he should receive at once a portion of his guerdon. He then gathered together a company of soldiers, and with the cafre set out to the place where the silver had been buried. Here they were told to dig, for here, said the guide, the silver mines truly lay. After digging up much

earth, the silver was found, at sight of which they rejoiced greatly, feasting and making merry ; and because it was almost night the cafre said he would fain go back to his house, and though, as all might see, the mines of silver were already discovered, yet on the morrow he would come again. The Governor agreed, but never again did that man return. The day after, seeing that the cafre came not back as he had promised, the Governor commanded to dig in the same place where the night before the silver had been laid bare, and in all the surrounding region, but no sign of silver did they see.

“Then was the native’s deception manifest. So seeing no way of finding the mines, and that all the inhabitants had fled with their supplies, Barreto turned his face towards Sena, leaving 200 soldiers with their captain, named Antonio Cardoso d’Almeida, provisioned and armed in a stockade of timber to take heed with caution of the cafres around, and find, if they could, the silver he coveted.

“In this place stayed the soldiers some months without success, and almost without food, which latter they were soon constrained to provide by force of arms.

“Hereupon the cafres, seeing they could not live in security and quiet with the Portuguese as their neighbours and foes, feigned to make peace with them, and communicate amicably with them, to gain their friendship that they might the more assuredly slay them by stealth. Thus passed some time in this pretended harmony, when at length

the cafres came to proffer their new friends the discovery of the silver mines.

“With this were our people very merry, and on the day set apart for the journey, there staying forty in the stockade for its ordinary guard, the remainder, who numbered 150, set out with their arms on their journey of discovery, accompanied by guides who pretended they had not more than a league to go. In this way they marched, until, entering a close jungle, they were in a moment attacked by more than 3,000 armed cafres, who fell upon them with great fury, killing and wounding as many as they could; and although the Portuguese slew many, nevertheless, surrounded as they were by dense jungle, they could not fight with order, and but few escaped and fled back to the fort, where they were soon besieged. There they remained several months, suffering greatly from hunger, until at length they determined to sally forth and die, if need be, like soldiers with arms in their hands. This they put into effect, and fell suddenly on the natives with such fury that they put them to flight, slaying many; but when they would fain have re-formed their ranks, the cafres returned and fell upon them from all sides, and seeing them in their power slew them so that not one escaped. Thus fell they all, selling their lives as dearly as might be.”

With much difficulty and greatly hindered by his sick and wounded, Barreto now returned to Sena, his expedition still further enfeebled by the men he had left behind, when he found messengers from

the Monomotapa who made friendly overtures, and several officers were told off to accompany them back in charge of valuable presents. Barreto then appointed his camp-master, Vasco Fernandes Homem, to the command of the column, and set out for Mozambique, where important business awaited settlement.

Early in 1573 he sailed once more for Sena accompanied by his son, and reinforcements of men to fill the sorely depleted ranks of the fine force with which he had left the Tagus so full of noble ambitions now four long years before. At the mouth of the Zambezi, however, a sore blow awaited him, for here he learned that almost all the members of the expedition left in charge of the camp-master had perished during his absence, and in such sore straits did the survivors find themselves that it is said on his arrival at Sena only about fifty soldiers were free from disease, and these so fever-stricken and exhausted that they were incapable of taking the field. The last physician that remained was dying, and the camp was one vast hospital, full—no, not full, although it had been—of helpless sick, whose senses were fortunately blunted in many cases by the merciful insanity which the despair of their position had produced. The Captain-General's feelings must have been those of utter hopelessness, for it is said he was shortly taken ill, and died a few days afterwards in a condition of great mental agony.

Vasco Fernandes Homem, who as we have seen was entrusted with the command of the fever-decimated camp at Sena, was now appointed

Captain-General of the whole of the East African coast-line from the Gulf of Aden to Cape Corrientes, and lost no time in taking up the burden which his predecessor, through so unimaginable a chain of unconquerable difficulties, had been forced at length by death to relinquish. He landed, therefore, at Sofala, it is thought, early in 1575, and marched straight through Quiteve to Manica, encountering not a little resistance on his way.

In the work of the priest João dos Santos to which I have just somewhat copiously referred, the territories through which the new Captain-General forced his way were those of the kingdom of Quiteve, but it is clear to us in the light of our knowledge of to-day that the term "kingdom" was then applied by the Portuguese to any area of whose extent they were ignorant, but which appeared to them, by reason of native rumour or of appearances often illusive, to be of importance meriting a separate designation. In any case, Quiteve was the accepted name of the strip of country running from the coast to the highlands of Manica, and to the Chief Quiteve, whose name they had given it, Vasco Homem lost no time in specifying the conditions in which he might live at peace with the Portuguese—conditions the more readily accepted seeing that his column had forced its way thither in the face of considerable resistance. They consisted in an agreement to facilitate commerce with the newcomers, keep open the highway to the coast, and furnish carriers and labour for all purposes. In return for these advantages, the factor at Sofala

was to pay an annual subvention of rolls of cloth. These arrangements satisfactorily concluded, the Captain-General returned to the coast. Thus ended the last attempt made by the Portuguese to obtain forcible possession of the kingdom of Monomotapa, and the disasters which had attended the attempts already made, left European prestige on the Zambezi at a lower ebb than it had ever reached since the appearance of the Portuguese on these coasts.

Glancing for a moment at the actual condition of this portion of East Africa, we find that at the end of the sixteenth century, although on the Zambezi itself beyond Sena but little had been accomplished, Sofala was at the height of its importance; was guarded by a fine stone fortress with wide bastions and heavy guns; contained three churches, described by dos Santos as of sufficient size and pleasing appearance, and in all nearly 1,000 baptised Christians, forming a settlement of merchants, whose interests not only identified themselves with the export of gold and ivory from Quiteve and Manica, but with pearls, amber, and tortoiseshell from Bocicas (Bazaruto), ambergris from the Sabi, and wax and other valuable native products from all parts of the territory. European influence on the Zambezi itself must have terminated not far above Sena, where we are told the small stone fort contained both light and heavy artillery, with the exception of the outlying settlement of Tete, which contained about forty Portuguese living, it can only be supposed, in an uncomfortable condition of constant nervous tension. In the country of

the Monomotapa *feiras*, or places of barter, had been established, according to dos Santos, at Mas-sapa, Luanze, and Manzovo. He describes them as being light fortifications or palisades, containing the factory or storehouse for European accommodation, the inevitable church, and the residence of the factor or government agent. These three *feiras*, little by little, placed Portuguese commerce on an extremely solid foundation, and were responsible for remunerative business relations with the Makaranga, which greatly increased in the seventeenth century, most of the exports, if not all, passing through the now considerable port of Quelimane.

In 1590 an appalling invasion of a horde of terrible natives from the north-west occurred. Sweeping down the north bank of the Zambezi, in numbers variously estimated, but believed to have been not less than 12,000 strong, these Zimbos or Mazimbos were cannibals who not only slew and laid waste along their devastating way, but literally ate up the tribes through whose lands they passed. They carried immense shields of ox-hide, with spears, battle-axes, and bows and arrows, and are described as being of much more powerful physique than the comparatively peaceful dwellers of the Zambezi Valley. The Portuguese undertook several expeditions against these savages, which almost always led to disaster. Their most successful encounter was with a Mazimba chief named Kuaziru, or Kuizura, who, with his division of about 600 warriors, was attacked in a fortified village of which it had possessed itself. All these warriors were killed, when it was found that the

chief's courtyard had been paved with the skulls of the victims he and his people had devoured. These Mazimba hordes, finding the Portuguese firearms too deadly to face, thence turned northward, and, it is said, sweeping across what are now the Shiré Highlands, harried the country as far as the Rovuma to the north of Mozambique. About the same time another Zimba division destroyed every available fighting man in Tete, by a ruse to which for cunning and ferocity it would be hard to find a parallel. It had been attacked by the Portuguese commandant from Sena, who, however, finding he had undertaken a hopeless task and being unable to retreat, sent messengers to Tete for assistance. The captain, Pedro Fernandes de Chaves, responded by collecting all his countrymen and a large number of natives, and proceeded at once to his colleague's succour. Information of their approach was conveyed to the Mazimba, however, who despatched a strong party to ambush them in a thick jungle. The unsuspecting Portuguese were far ahead of their native troops, travelling in palanquins and wholly unarmed, when without warning they were suddenly fallen upon by the Mazimba and killed to the last man, the only one reserved being a monk, a contemporary of the friar João dos Santos, who tells us what took place. This luckless cleric was taken to the Mazimba camp, tied to a tree, and gradually killed by being shot with arrows. The returning Mazimba detachment then appeared before the camp of the beleaguered Portuguese, their chief arrayed in the plundered vestments of the murdered priest, whose

head was borne on high upon the point of a spear. The limbs of those who had fallen, which were destined for an unimaginable feast, were also displayed to the horror-stricken Europeans as an earnest of what was in store for them. Terrified by this wholly unlooked-for catastrophe, the Sena commander endeavoured to withdraw his forces in the night ; but, while preparing to recross the river, they were fallen upon, and most, if not all the Europeans, with many of their native allies, were cut to pieces.

From 1608 to 1619 various expeditions were sent from Mozambique to accomplish the pacification of the Zambezi districts, each, as we learn, with an eye to the illusive silver mines which in the past had cost the early settlers so dearly. These were never discovered, but the crumbling power of Monomotapa, which for many years had been undergoing a gradual process of disintegration, enabled the Portuguese thenceforward to establish themselves firmly in those distant inland regions. Thus about 1630 the Governor of Mozambique, by dint of assisting that potentate in the subjugation of some disaffected tribes, took advantage of the pretext thus afforded him of negotiating a treaty of vassalage whereby the Monomotapa formally recognised Portuguese sovereignty throughout his dominions ; undertook to seek for and make known the whereabouts of the silver mines ; grant to Portugal a virtual monopoly of the gold industry ; receive a permanent Portuguese resident in his zimbabwe,* or capital ; and pay an annual tribute

* Zimbabwe is said by the old writers to have signified royal residence.

of three pastas * of gold. In return for this treaty, in 1631, he was appointed a Knight of the Order of Christ. Fresh disturbances, however, broke out in the succeeding years, from which it is not unnatural to infer that the ill-starred chieftain found his position one of extreme difficulty; he was soon afterwards deposed by the Portuguese, who appointed a successor whom they named Dom Filippe. This individual also revolted, and gave place to a third ruler, who, according to Lacerda, was not baptised until after his accession. This rapid making and unmaking of kings must have had a far-reaching moral effect upon the tribes of Monomotapa, since we learn that thereafter the Resident at the chief's zimbabwe was granted, without any resistance on the part of the chieftain, a Portuguese escort of thirty men.

About this time the commerce of the "Rivers of Cuama," as the Zambezi was still called, was thrown open to all Portuguese subjects, with the exception of the traffic in gold, which was expressly reserved to the royal treasury. It so happened, however, that a new industry was about to spring up, so easy and lucrative in its pursuit that the comparatively arduous toil involved in the search for gold was with one consent abandoned. This was the slave trade. The ports of Angola, then under Dutch control, furnished but few negroes for the Brazilian plantations; here then was a wide field for the supply of this indispensable and valuable commodity, and, moreover, far from being

* Plates of varying weight, but usually said to have been equal to about 12 oz,

regarded as in any sense derogatory, it was looked upon as one of the most honourable and justifiable of callings. Curiously enough, the commencement of this hideous occupation coincided almost exactly with the first serious attempt at establishing permanent missions of Dominican friars for the evangelisation of this portion of the country, parishes being now founded (1652) all along the banks of the Zambezi, from Luabo in the delta as far as Tete and Zumbo. It would not appear, however, that these servants of the gospel of peace and goodwill towards man made any effort towards representing how heinous was this general and widespread exportation of slaves, with all the abominable cruelties, vices, and iniquities by which it was attended. It would seem, indeed, that so complacently did they view the rapidly increasing opulence of their backsliding countrymen, that, conscious of the advantages they were to derive from so much unlooked-for wealth, the voice of reprobation was smothered in tolerant anticipation of temporal benefit.

In spite of the disturbing appearance of the English in 1649, and of the Hollanders two years later, and notwithstanding the sensible impoverishment caused by the growing export of slaves, a remarkable growth in the development of Portuguese influence on the Zambezi is the most striking feature of the seventeenth century. The gold industry, moreover, had increased in that and the Quelimane districts, just as it had declined almost in direct ratio at the port of Sofala; for about this time, one reads, while Sofala with great difficulty

succeeded in dealing with a total annual output of only 500 pastas of gold, Quelimane shipped no less than a steady 3,000. These figures, so far as can be ascertained, represent the high-water mark of gold export from these coasts, and soon afterwards the quantities commenced to dwindle in importance, a circumstance entirely due, as the authorities of the period are agreed, to the enervating influence of the growing traffic in human beings.

The whole territory was now divided into leased districts, whence originated the *Prazo* system which we will discuss more fully in a succeeding chapter; but, unlike the present more restricted arrangement, the custom of that time granted a lease, not for a period of years, but for the duration of three generations, passing from father to son.

The system of government subordinated all administrative officials to the Captain of Sena—the “Chief Captain of the Rivers,” as he was at that time picturesquely called—in all matters excepting the trial of offences, or processes regarded as actions of a non-criminal character, which, so far as one can see, had to be remitted for decision to the tribunals of Goa.

From 1660 to the commencement of the eighteenth century, the events which succeeded each other have but little interest for us. Decree after decree was published, each intended to improve existing conditions, but few succeeding by reason of the increasing wealth and consequent independence of the landholders in the remoter districts. These had now become in many cases so powerful that, surrounded by numerous armed retainers, and

occupying strongly fortified houses, their positions were not unlike those of the feudal chieftains of the middle ages, and they even made war upon each other from time to time without reference to the constituted authorities of the period.

Then came Changamira. Who this chieftain was, or whence he came, is not clear. He is believed to have been a headman of the last Monomotapa, but be this as it may, by his wars and descents he darkened the opening years of the eighteenth century to such an extent that the Portuguese had great difficulty in holding their own. Fighting was almost continuous until, shortly after the rebuilding of the fort of São Marcel at Sena, by Dom João Fernandes d'Almeida about 1720, a peace was concluded. Almost as grave, however, in their consequences upon the solidarity of the government system, were the disorders caused in Sena by the Dominican priests, and by some of the powerfully established Portuguese prazo-holders to whom allusion has just been made. But for these, it must be confessed, the instability of the commercial policy of the government was largely responsible, monopolies and privileges of every kind being granted and withdrawn with an air of irresponsibility which would have been startling had it not indicated the deep-rooted corruption which had eaten into the heart of the administrative system. In 1755, after numerous singular fluctuations of régime, commerce was again thrown open to all Portuguese subjects, and two years later a decree was published which restricted officials from following commercial pursuits.

Darker still was the opening of the nineteenth century. The possession of the prazoes and districts of Zambezia, which had for so many years remained in the hands of pure Portuguese, was now to a great extent in the control of their half-caste and quarter-caste descendants. By this time ivory and gold were scarce, the country depopulated by the slave-export, and the seaboard from time to time harried by French, Dutch, and English privateers. The great influence of that distinguished statesman the Marquês de Pombal, whose edict in 1761 extinguished the Jesuits and confiscated their property, was fast waning; and if the people were a prey to indolence, immorality, and corruption, but little more can be said for those in whose hands the governing power had been placed.

The first events of importance, after the dawn of the nineteenth century, were wars with the Bongas; and the massacre at Boroma by these savages of the devoted Governor Villas Boas Truão in 1810, through an act of treachery on the part of a native guide, was followed by an amazing sedition and disorder in Sena. We are informed by Botelho that a proclamation was actually issued announcing a union with Brazil—a foolish and bloodless revolution quickly extinguished. The same authority informs us of the independence of Quelimane granted, under a sub-governor, in 1814. A short time before his death Governor Villas Boas Truão, in a report upon the “Capitania dos Rios de Sena,” lamented the want of agricultural development, and the dwindling importance of the gold and ivory revenue. He deals trenchantly, moreover, with

the manner of life of the European inhabitants, who, loaded with debt, lived in a fool's paradise, their days passed in indolence, immorality, and extravagance. His remarks regarding the ignorance and malpractices of the Dominican priests are also very pointed. Precisely the same views are, moreover, expressed by Manoel Gomes Loureiro, who shortly afterwards wrote on the same subject.

In 1836, having flourished like an evil weed for nearly two hundred years, the traffic in slaves was formally abolished; but in order to avoid the general ruin which would have succeeded had the decree enacting this salutary measure been suddenly put into force, its introduction was gradual, and thus the full effect of the reform did not become generally felt for many years thereafter. This decree was followed by another in 1858, which finally abolished the legal status of slavery, and shortly afterwards another was introduced creating primary schools in various districts bordering on the Zambezi.

From 1865 to 1875 war again broke out, and the Bongas inflicted disaster after disaster upon the enfeebled Portuguese forces. These, unhappily, owing to a succession of misfortunes, were unable to assert themselves, and a welcome peace was proclaimed in the latter year, which, however, was not destined to be a lasting one, for, but little later, further fighting took place, which was not brought to an end until, in 1887, the Bonga power was finally broken by Governor Simoes and Colonel Paiva de Andrada.

Let us now finally glance at the condition of

Zambezia towards the close of the nineteenth century. Properly speaking it possessed but three settlements, Sena, Tete, and Zumbo. Of these, the first was a ruined village containing half a dozen stone houses and a few mud huts, surrounded by a feeble palisade scarcely worthy of the name of a fortification. The dreaded Landins or Vatuas from the country to the north of Delagoa Bay collected a yearly tribute, and commerce, properly speaking, existed in name only. Tete was in like circumstances, whilst Zumbo was a mere village of thatched mud huts inhabited by natives, doubtless blood relations of the Bongas, who were probably only waiting for a favourable opportunity to break out anew into deeds of war and rapine.

CHAPTER III

THE RIVER ZAMBEZI AND ITS SCENERY : CHINDE,
SHUPANGA, MORAMBALA, INYANGOMA, MUTE-
RARA, LUPATA, TETE

THE River Zambezi, rising in the Lunda country on the borders of Angola, has a total course of over 1,200 miles, and drains an area estimated at more than 600,000 square miles. Its headwaters can scarcely yet be regarded as fully explored, but it is considered probable that the true source flows from the east of the marshy lake Dilolo, situated about 12° S. lat. and 22° E. long. This branch, known as the Liba, which, for want of better data to go upon, we will regard as the beginning of all things Zambezian, is soon joined by the Lungo-e-bungo, or Dungeungo, coming from near Kabuta in the Massamba mountains, and the Liambe, or Yambaji, which rises in Kazembe's country. These three branches coming together, and swollen by the waters of the Uyengo, form what is called the Upper Zambezi, and flow south by east through Barotseland, now becoming better known as Lewanika's country; thence, as it receives the Linyanti or Chobe, it trends almost due east, and soon after thunders over that eighth wonder of

the world, the Victoria Falls. The great river now takes a north-easterly direction, and enters the Portuguese Province of Mozambique at Zumbo, the small settlement which marks its confluence with the Loangwa or Aroangwa River, an important waterway forming for many miles the Anglo-Portuguese western boundary, and rising in the northern portion of the Nyasaland Protectorate. Broadly speaking, the waters of the River Zambezi are mainly those drained from what we may call for the sake of convenience the great central plain of Africa, which at this point of the continent stretches from the western shores of Lake Nyasa to the confines of the Portuguese West African Colony of Angola. Its most important tributaries are, of course, the Aroangwa mentioned above, and the Shiré, draining Lake Nyasa, and flowing through the Protectorate of that name, where its waters are reinforced by the Ruo from the north-eastward.

Although, doubtless, the Zambezi may be regarded as a river of moderately slow and placid current, flowing, so far as its course through the Portuguese Province is concerned, through broad wooded valleys and richly fertile plains, it is inevitable, when one comes to consider the singular system of terraces whereby Africa ascends from the low-lying malarious seaboard to the healthy upland plateaux of Rhodesia, that many falls and cataracts must arrest it in its course to the eastward, or assuredly the greater portion of the year would find the bed of the river a mere dry, sandy streak. Putting aside, therefore, the restraining,

lock-like influence exerted by the Victoria Falls in the British Sphere, we are now aware, to the eastward of them, of a long system of unnavigable river, interrupted every few miles by perilous rapids and cataracts, until the final bar to inland navigation is reached at the Rapids of Cachomba or Coroabassa, which impose, about thirty miles east of the Anglo-Portuguese frontier, an insuperable barrier to any but canoe navigation. Once past Cachomba, the Zambezi widens out once more, and meanders placidly past Tete, its wide, silvery waters broken by countless wooded and sandy islets, which continue for many miles as the great river rolls on to the distant sea.

I have come to the conclusion that four or five centuries ago, when the early Portuguese pioneers first forced their way up, the river was nothing like so wide as it is at present, and therefore must have been much deeper. If the formation of the river banks be carefully noted, it will be found that for one mile of clay formation there are probably twenty of light, porous, sandy soil, opposing no resistance to erosion by the current, and, consequently, always washing away. As this action has, without question, been going on through the ages, it must be perfectly evident that the river has been widening all the time. This is one reason for its consistent shallowness, as, clearly, only an insignificant quantity of the eroded matter could be carried in suspension, but must have filled up those channels which we read in the old records were once of sufficient depth to afford passage to vessels of considerable size. As most people are



CACHOMBA OR COROABASA.

aware, to build steamers now for the Zambezi river traffic drawing more than 2 ft. would be so much money thrown away. When the river is in full flood, of course, the depth is often six or seven times as great, and communication easy with all points below Coroabassa Rapids on the one hand, and the Murchison Falls of the Shiré on the other.

It would not, I consider, be carrying hypothesis too far to predict a time, still doubtless far distant, when the Zambezi as we know it will cease to exist, and its course, many times wider than it now appears, will present the appearance of a vast, sandy track, over which, after the middle of each rainy season, a shallow trickle of water will pass for a few months seaward, to dry up quickly and disappear with the last of the summer rains. In great waterways like the Congo and the Niger, the clayey nature of their banks has doubtless had much to do with their long-continued, and even increasing, navigability; the rich, argillaceous soil which produced and nourished the immense, almost impenetrable, forests of the higher waters of the Congo, has had an actually preservative effect, in so far as it has been carried down, on the banks of the lower river, by leaving upon them a thick, adhesive, immovable stratum of mud. Not so the Zambezi. Except near the delta, very little mud is seen. Its course, as I have said, is one long, continuous system of sandy islets and visible sandbanks, the component grains of the latter, I doubt not, once part and parcel of a richly productive, alluvial soil area. Again, any steamship master of some years' standing will tell you that in his

recollection of it the river is distinctly changing for the worse; that at such and such a point where he used to get good, bold water up to August, he cannot now pass after the middle of June, and that there can be no doubt that the river is growing shallower and shallower year by year.

In the Shiré, which, as we have seen, drains Lake Nyasa into the Zambezi, an even more singular phenomenon presents itself. Of late years, so little has this river been influenced by the annual rainfalls that the utmost difficulty has been experienced in keeping communication open even so far as Chiromo, the port of entry of the Nyasaland Protectorate. Ten years ago, whilst I was serving in that part of the country, the annual rainfall amounted to between 50 and 60 inches, and raised the level of the lake about 5 ft., this immense volume of water draining down through the Shiré, and keeping that river open to navigation usually until late in the month of June. Now, although the Nyasaland rainfall has in nowise diminished since the period I have mentioned, its effect in raising the level of Lake Nyasa is not, I am informed, more than half what it used to be, and the lake, therefore, instead of rising to the height to which it formerly attained, scarcely ever adds more than 2 ft. to its dry-season level. Where does all this water go to? The only comprehensible explanation which has so far been offered is to the effect that Nyasa may have sprung some terrific leak, and that in some portion of the continent still to be explored, but most probably low down on the almost unknown, eastern, coast-

ward side, an immense foaming torrent goes thundering seaward, and, for aught we know to the contrary, may be now delving out the bed of some unknown, unsuspected, and unnamed river.* It is attractive as a theory, but only a theory of course.

A few words about the delta. As it nears the coast, the Zambezi branches out into six or seven mouths, which, in order from north to south, are called the Chinde, Caterina, East Luabo, Inyamissengo (or Kongoni), Milambe, and West Luabo. In addition to these, there are one or two small outlets, which are, I think, properly speaking, branches of the main channels. For many years past the Chinde mouth has been used by small steamers which formerly landed their passengers and cargo either by the Inyamissengo entrance, or else took them on to Quelimane fifty miles to the northward. Thence, wayfarers for the upper waters of the Zambezi and Lake Nyasa journeyed in comfortless house-boats up the Qua-qua River,† upon which the town of Quelimane stands, to a point on the Zambezi at Mopéa which the Qua-qua approaches, and with which I understand it communicates in the rainy season, and may thus, perhaps, have some claim to be regarded as the eighth channel of the delta. In the course of time, however, the Chinde entrance, having come to be regarded as the least liable to variation, was definitely selected by shippers as the port of entry to the Zambezi, and in due time a small settlement sprang up

* Lake Nyasa is nearly 1,600 ft. above sea-level.

† The ancient "River of Good Signs."

which I was on the point of saying still remains, but I remembered in time to stay my pen that such a statement would be wholly inaccurate. A place which we *call* Chinde exists, it is true, but not the Chinde whose acquaintance I made fifteen years ago. That Chinde has long ago been borne away in suspension in the eroding waters of the Zambezi, and now lies either at the bottom of the river, or has gone to strengthen the innumerable bars and sand-spits which constitute such a danger to vessels entering the tiny port. In a word, the Chinde of the early nineties has been gradually washed away, and the present aspect and appearance of the townlet is as of one which the waters have suddenly invaded, engulfing one portion and still menacing the other. It will, I fancy, enable me still to lay claim to accuracy if I say that, since I have known Chinde, a valuable strip of fully 200 yards has completely disappeared from the existing river bank, the width of the stream at this point having proportionately increased.

In 1891, as the result of an Exchange of Notes between the British and Portuguese Governments, a piece of land which I believe I am right in saying was about 100 acres in extent, was leased by Portugal to the authorities of the British Central Africa (now known as the Nyasaland) Protectorate, for the landing, storage, and transhipment of goods intended for transport to that British sphere. A year or two after, when I first landed in Chinde, this piece of land, called the British Concession, securely fenced in, and fulfilling the functions of a gigantic bonded warehouse, con-

tained the tidily built offices of the transport companies and shipping agents who controlled the river traffic, and the tastefully laid out gardens and cement tennis court of the British Central Africa Protectorate Agent and Vice-Consul. Along one side of this ran the river, at whose tendency to eat away the sandy bank householders were already beginning to look with disquietude. Gradually the disappearance of the bank increased until it attained to alarming proportions, and buildings had to be hurriedly taken down at great expense, and re-erected in positions promising greater safety. After some time, representations were made through our Legation at Lisbon requesting an addition to the first grant made, and indeed it was time, for visiting Chinde a few months ago, I found that the original Concession had entirely disappeared, and that the site of the house wherein I had resided in 1896 was now somewhere about the spot on which my steamer was anchored.

There is not very much in Chinde to describe, but as it is 'the main entrance to certain of our possessions which we trust may one day prove of importance, a few words regarding it may not be out of place. Situated on a sandy plain at the northern end of Timbwe Island, its back to the Indian Ocean, and its face (or as much of its face as may remain) to the Chinde River, the small settlement does not present an alluring appearance. As I have just stated, its aspect from the water is that of one half of a corrugated-iron town whose remaining moiety has been cut off and put down somewhere else—as indeed it has. On our boat nearing the dingy

mixture of sand and mud of which the bank is composed, we seem able to look right into houses and compounds and offices and workshops, since the fences, when there were any, have either been washed down or taken up. Perched upon the top of the "Gombé," as the river bank is here called, one's attention is first caught by several stern-wheel river steamers in ingeniously constructed dry docks, either "resting," as they say in the theatrical profession, or undergoing repairs, their appearance suggesting that of so many gigantic and indignant hens sitting on an equal number of enormous nests, the air vibrating the while with the tapping of hammers on iron plates. On the steeply shelving river bank itself, every sort of craft is huddled in one confused pell-mell, from the smartly painted, five-oared agent's gig, to the large, unwieldy, iron lighter. On the top of the bank, other boats appear under thatched shelters of neglected exterior, wherein repose in addition a number of card-playing natives, who are supposed to be cleaning paint or brasswork. We climb upon brawny shoulders, and are speedily carried ashore. The first annoyance is caused by the sand into which our feet sink to the ankle. It is hot sand, and you speculate as to what would be the sufferings of a wearer of patent leathers in such a place. The crowd on the "Gombé" is a motley one. Natives, of course, everywhere, unintelligent-looking, almost naked Zambezi boys, or "lower river boys" as one speedily learns to call them. A couple of Scottish engineers, coatless, shirt sleeves rolled up, double terai hat faded and shapeless well

back on the head, pipe inevitable, evidently in difficulties with their razors, and profanely discussing a question relative to angle-irons with an accent redolent of the shadow of Saint Mungo. They stroll along jostling one or two tidy-looking Mohammedans in red fezzes, evidently from the cultured native atmosphere of Zanzibar. A leisurely khaki-clad Customs guard, cigarette in mouth, who appears, in addition to misunderstandings with the barber, to have lost the run of his soap-box, discusses some important point of local customs tariff with a group of dressy Indian merchants, with gold-embroidered caps and spangled waistcoats. A little farther along you see a handsome, brass-mounted machila,* spread with a showy leopard-skin rug, and carried by four muscular A-Mahindo with wild-looking cocks' feathers perkily stuck in their small, jaunty, scarlet fezzes. It awaits the head of some local business agency, who stalks contemplatively down the two rough wooden steps of the counting-house, lighting a Virginia cigarette and ejaculating over his shoulder: "Aweel, Jock, Ah'll no' be gi'in' ye an answer the noo, ye ken. She'll no' be sailin' to-morra; Ah canna get th' wood alongside, and frae all accoonts there's varra little wather i' th' river. Onny way ye'll hae yer commeeshun, ye ken. So long."

I do not think, with the exception of that portion of Chinde called the Portuguese town, that there is anything which might be taken as even dimly resembling the most rudimentary form of street or road. Sand, of course, is everywhere, and every-

* A hammock or canvas seat slung on a strong bamboo pole.

body who can manage to do so is carried in a machila. Two hotels furnish quite superior food and accommodation when regard is had to the extraordinary difficulties which must attend the daily supply of any article of constant consumption other than strong waters. Of these there is never any lack. A little withdrawn from the workshops of the transport companies and the offices and stores of the British Concession, and situated in what is called the "Outer Concession," one finds scattered all over the centre of the island and facing the sea a number of tastefully built, and in one or two cases quite commodious, houses, all, it is true, of wood and iron, but in several instances possessing the inestimable advantage of an upper story, to catch the sea-breeze and escape the mosquitoes. They all mark a distinct advance on the shameless shanties which were all that we considered necessary in the far-off days of the early nineties. The only remaining feature lying outside the small settlement is the happily sparsely occupied cemetery. An old burial-ground there is, it is true, nearer the river, which I hope will rather turn from its course than disturb the well-earned repose of such men as Stairs (Stanley's companion through Darkest Africa), John Buchanan, Monteith Fotheringham, and several others of those early pioneers of civilisation to whom Central Africa owes so much. But I mention the cemetery, as it brings back to my mind recollections of the only occasion upon which my conduct at a graveside ever brought down upon me a stern rebuke. I had been asked to read the funeral office at the

burial of some passing stranger of North British origin, which was largely attended by his brother Scots. The last sad scene was enacted, the Benediction pronounced, and as I sadly turned away to gain my machila, I became faintly conscious that the bystanders were regarding me with an ill-concealed expression of indignant surprise. Much pained by so unexpected a manifestation, I took one of these aside shortly afterwards and asked him the reason for it, when he sternly replied: "Aweel, Sir, Ah'll no' be sayin' we were a'thegither contented wi' ye. Yer readin' o' the Buke micht hae been gude, or it micht hae been bad, but we *did* think ye'd hae said *a few wurds!*"

An immense improvement has taken place in river transport from Chinde since my first voyage up the Zambezi and Shiré in 1893. My recollections of this are painful ones. It should be borne in mind that at the period I have mentioned it was difficult to ascertain in England, prior to starting on an African journey, exactly what to supply one's self with—that is to say, what to take out, and what to leave for purchase on arrival; the consequence was that, like most travellers of the period, I found at the mouth of the Zambezi that I could scarcely purchase anything, and that many of the articles with which I had provided myself I could well have dispensed with altogether. I started away from Chinde one afternoon on board of a side-wheel paddle steamer of archaic pattern called the *John Bowie*. I did not at that time know anything regarding the individual whose name she bore, with the exception that he was

already dead, and I had not passed many hours on board before beginning to wish that he had taken her with him. She was a flat-bottomed, shallow-draught old tub drawing about two feet, and we towed two small lighters astern laden with I know not what. Her sole accommodation consisted of two cabins, each about the size of a large packing case, and placed in the stern of the vessel. In each of these, two microscopic wooden bunks had been squeezed, so that with four passengers on board the maximum accommodation was exhausted. These were innocent of mosquito-curtains, and, so far as I can recollect, destitute of any other sort of convenience. Buckets of water outside on deck were provided for the passengers' ablutions, and the daily bath was an event for the preparation and enjoyment of which the whole morning seemed all too short and fleeting. To begin with, there was no bath, nor was there any place wherein such a luxury could have been installed; recourse, therefore, had to be had to buckets, and two, placed side by side on an inconveniently narrow ledge in the very partial shelter of the cabins I have just mentioned, permitted one to stand in the "altogether," as Trilby would have said, one foot in each, at the imminent risk, should the vessel turn a sharp corner at the moment, of being precipitated into the fast-flowing, crocodile-haunted current which swept the steamer's sides only a few inches below. This peril survived, others had still to be faced. There was no dining saloon, or any part of the deck suitable for the purpose of dining, as such a duty is usually understood;

and as the full complement of passengers consisted only of four, a table was laid on the after-hatchway, immediately abaft the unguarded machinery, and about two feet from the stroke of the cylinders. Here we were joined by the commander, a very large, red-faced Hollander, possessed of a surprisingly rich and varied vocabulary of fluent, international profanity. His staff was also present, consisting of the several executive officers, the several engineer officers, the boatswain, carpenter, and cook, all combined in the person of one small, pale, unspeakably dirty Scotsman. Did the commander desire steam at any given hour, Scotty had to see that it was ready. Whilst attending to this, did it strike the commander (who was also the purser) that we required bread, the obedient and versatile Scotty wiped his engine-room-oily hands on a venerable piece of cotton waste, and immediately proceeded to carry out his instructions. Let me not recount either how the food was cooked, of what it consisted, or, more important still, what it tasted like; these are unprofitable memories, and I would that they were memories no longer.

But the nights were worse than all else.

As I have said, there were no mosquito-curtains, and the piece of muslin which was all I could obtain at Chinde was far too tiny to serve any useful purpose. To the sleeplessness produced by swarms of mosquitoes, was added, soon after midnight, a variety of discomfort by the dew which filtered through the cracks in the roof and dropped icily cold upon one from above.

Of course, we have changed all that now, and,

within certain limits, a passenger may at present ascend these rivers in comfort. A voyage which I made from Chinde to Tete a few months ago stands out in my memory as among the most agreeable I have ever undertaken. Nothing was lacking on this Portuguese river steamer, and the days on board spent in watching panorama after panorama unfold, each as it seemed more varied and beautiful than the last, passed all too quickly.

There are, I understand, running on the Zambezi and Shiré Rivers, or available to do so should inducement offer, no less than twenty stern-wheel passenger and cargo steamers, and 108 barges and lighters, with a total carrying capacity of some 4,756 tons. These transport to Chiromo, the port of entry of Nyasaland, large quantities of merchandise for local consumption, and increasing consignments in transit for Rhodesia, and even for such far-away points as the Katanga and Garanzanga countries bordering upon the eastern frontiers of the distant Congo Free State. The amount of cargo actually carried by the British and other transport companies during 1906 amounted to 18,327 tons, these figures representing both imports and exports.

As one ascends the Chinde River, as that dreary branch of the Zambezi Delta is called, the banks are seen to be fringed by dense forests of gloomy mangroves, forming an impassable, or almost impassable, screen or barrier which for many miles shuts out any glimpse of the grassy plains beyond. It is probable that persons who have never quitted the United Kingdom may regard the mangrove, by

reason of the similarity of its name to that of a totally different class of tree, as some beautiful forest growth, covered with rich, luscious fruit, and bright with balsamic clusters of tropical flowers. It is my duty to remove this illusion. The mangrove (*Rhizophoraceæ*) is a horrible excrescence on the face of the African coast. There is something about it so unnatural, so abnormal, that the effect it produces upon one is the reverse of pleasing. It springs from mud, and thrives in the blackest, most treacherous, and most forbidding of ooze. It consists in East Africa of two different species, the red and the white, both of which, as I have just pointed out, thrust their rapidly increasing and obnoxious presence at all points under your very nose. Its horrible, nightmare-like, arching roots descend into the mud like the clumsy, slimy foundations of some prehistoric crinoline, from the centre of which the trunk springs. The lower limbs throw down tufts of roots, which strike on reaching the mud beneath, and throw up other members of the same unlovely family. Within the mangrove forests, moreover, there is always darkness and gloom. The tree produces a sombre, ever-green leaf, and grows so close to its neighbour that the foliage, uniting, shuts out the day. In the semi-twilight thus produced you see, in your mournful, squelching progress through this moist, muddy land of disordered dreams, the ghostly night-jar rise noiselessly from beneath your feet ; a horned owl glares suspicious disapproval ; a scuttling brood of hideous land crabs disappear down their yawning, muddy holes ; and a huge, carnivorous iguana,

like a small, ungainly crocodile, appears as though specially sent to complete a picture of hopeless desolation.

As, about five hours from Chinde, we near the main body of the Zambezi, however, some slight improvement in our surroundings takes place. The depressing mangrove ceases; the river banks increase in height, and change from black, clinging, viscous mud to a soil of a sandy, or more rarely clayey, character. At the point where one turns into the Zambezi, here some 800 or 900 yards wide, these banks, in the dry season, are fully 15 or 18 feet in height, and display in their faces the curious, interesting strata of clay, sand, sandstone, and organic matter of which the local formation is composed. In places they are literally honey-combed for long distances by swifts and sand-martins, and the parent birds wheel and circle round their tiny strongholds just as we have seen them do in the well-remembered sand-pits at home. The water (I am supposing it to be still the middle of May) flows placidly down at a rate of about three miles an hour. It is of a pale *café-au-lait* colour, and bears sand and organic substances carried in suspension from the far interior. It is excellent water, however, and, boiled and filtered, is perfectly wholesome. Over the high banks, fringed with green reeds and high, snowy-plumed spear-grass, clumps of trees now appear; several kinds of thinly leaved acacias mingling with a curious pale green elm are most numerous, but away beyond, sometimes singly and sometimes in groups of half a dozen or more, straight-trunked, clean-cut hyphcœne and



A VILLAGE SCENE.

borassus palms tower 60 and 70 feet above the surrounding forest growths, dwarfing all else by their majestic stature. Sandy islets covered with grass and reeds are passed all day long, and floating islands of marshy greenery borne down on the current require careful watching lest they should get under the bows of the steamer and decrease her speed. Turning round a jutting sand-bank, three or four large crocodiles are seen almost imperceptibly entering the water, which closes slowly as we approach over the menacing, coffin-shaped heads. Farther on the glasses reveal a vast congregation of Zambezi fowl. Giant, grey herons stand sentrylike watching the water, whilst stalking sharply about in the shallows, with wide, hurried stride, snowy white egrets shoot out their long, yellow beaks, with a snaky motion of the neck, at the small fish and other tiny forms of river life. In a miniature lagoon inside the sand-spit where the river current causes no eddy, a few spur-winged geese, bronzy green on back and wing covers, with a dash of white at the base of the neck, fraternise harmoniously with a dozen small black pochard, and some barred umber and dark brown whistling duck. Running about the edge, probably envious of the natural accomplishments of their acquaintances the ducks and geese, sandpipers, dunlins, spur-winged plover, curlew, and many other shore birds in large numbers pursue the swarming river fish, until the steamer's near approach sends them with loud cries, and whistles, and vociferous quacking and flapping to seek their sustenance in less disturbed surroundings.

Here and there on the bank above, the hive-shaped roofs of small native villages appear, and on some high white-ant-heap, or other elevated point, two or three dusky native heads appear, curiously watching the slow progress of the now familiar steamer. In the bushes overhanging the river, colonies of yellow and black weaver birds have built their nests, which faintly resemble so many distended stockings hanging leg downwards over the water. Kites and fishing eagles make their appearance, whilst still at a distance of more than fifty miles from the coast, gulls are now and then to be seen, together with a small, apparently black-backed tern, probably the *Hydrochelidon leucoptera*.

Usually the first stopping-place on the Zambezi is the important French sugar plantation and manufactory at Marroméo, on the right bank, which was established by a powerful syndicate of that nationality about ten years ago. The tall black chimney is hideously visible for many miles, as at night are the brilliant illuminations. In a subsequent chapter I shall endeavour to give some description of this important Zambezi industry, which is now assuming encouraging proportions. At this point the river narrows somewhat, and the increasing current thus produced requires every pound of steam we can muster in order to pass it. I was informed by Monsieur Aubert, the company's courteous manager, that great difficulty was experienced here, as at Chinde, in conserving their property, which the current was fast washing away, and he pointed out some important buildings

whose daily increasing nearness to the stream was the cause of great anxiety. A mile or so above the Marroméo sugar works the steamer passes the Mozambique Company's Customs Station, on the south bank of the river.

A day's journey, pounding slowly against the current, passing many sand-banks and islets, and, perchance, catching sight of the square head of an aged and experienced hippopotamus on the way, warily withdrawn beneath the water long before the steamer nears him, and we come to Shupanga, an old-established and beautifully situated station of the Franciscan Missionaries. The river, still about 800 yards wide, is deeper here, there are no sand-banks visible, and between the point at which the steamer ties up and the buildings themselves, a distance of some 250 yards, a well-kept piece of grass (I had almost written lawn) slopes gradually upward, intersected by trim, gravel foot-paths and bordered by sharp-pointed aloes and smooth-barked cotton trees. The low, whitewashed buildings are of stone, and very extensive and commodious. There are, of course, chapel, schools, and workshops, but not the least important of the mission departments is that of the wonderfully complete and extensive vegetable gardens, which possess their own efficient system of irrigation tanks. A little below these, one reverently removes one's hat before the marble stone which marks the resting-place of Mary Moffat, or Livingstone, the wife of that greatest of African explorers, whose name is so indelibly engraven on the very heart of the great continent for which he gave his life.

Continuing up the river, one is immediately struck on leaving Shupanga by the increased luxuriance of the tropical vegetation. The high river-banks are covered with an exuberant growth of low bushes. Palms of various kinds become very numerous; immense baobabs, clumps of stiff euphorbias, and groves of feathery albizzias mingle with acacias of several kinds. Few large trees appear, however, if we omit a species of camwood, whose bark is used for dyeing, and which I believe to be a species of baphia. Climbing plants quite cover the bushes and lower trees in places, and hang down lovely, transparent green trailers gemmed with deep mauve, white-centred convolvulus blooms to gaze Narcissus-like, in placid admiration of their beauties, in the calmly flowing water beneath. And now the pale blue outline of Morambala Mountain shows faintly in the north-west. We should have seen it yesterday evening if the weather had not been cloudy. As the day advances this fascinating elevation, which springs to a height of, I believe, nearly 5,000 feet from the plain, continues to unfold a wide succession of glittering granite peaks, rocky escarpments, and tree-clothed foothills. From appearing in the distance as one single, isolated, majestic peak, it opens out on nearer approach into an exquisite panorama of undulating eminences which form what is really the rocky advance guard of the Shiré Highlands, and marks one upward step in the curious ascent leading to that wide upland plateau of which so vast an area of Central Africa consists. Away to the westward again, more



THE FRANCISCAN MISSION, SHUPANGA.

mountain peaks commence to show, and, with their advent, is provided the one sadly missing factor in the landscape; it at once takes on a completeness which the bare plains of the lower river have taught us to appreciate.

The next morning, having been able, thanks to a full moon, to proceed by night instead of tying up to the river bank as otherwise we should have inevitably done, we wake to find ourselves at Villa Bocage on the Shiré River. This lovely but most insalubrious spot is at the very foot of the mountains, which tower above the river bank to a height which the mist of the early morning prevents us from estimating. After an early breakfast, as the steamer is not to leave until 10 o'clock, I take a shot gun and stroll away along the bank to plunge almost immediately into the thickly growing forest. Here, at this time of the year, the vegetation displays a vast wealth of colour and detail, whilst the water reflects a sky all dappled with fleecy clouds terminating in edges of luminous straw colour. It is only rising mist, however, and no anxiety need be felt concerning it. Forest trees have always had an extraordinary fascination for me, whether at midday stretched out for my siesta beneath their shade, or camped for the night in their purple shadow. Their cool, grateful greenness—that delicious greenness upon which the eye, tired and aching from the hard, white, radiating heat outside, turns with a sensation of welcome relief—draws me towards their cool protection like the irresistible influence of a powerful magnet. I never see one felled without experiencing a vague

feeling akin to grief, whilst the pleasure one feels after crossing some wide plain or expanse of scrub country and again finding oneself in the sylvan depths of the true forest is not unlike the satisfaction one experiences on reaching camp at the end of a weary march.

Proceeding slowly in my quest of a morning shot, the path is soon barred by a deep stream running in from the river, and, as I find, forming a few hundred yards therefrom an enchanting back-water full of interesting forms of life. An overhanging canopy of leafy boughs, some looped together with lianas and monkey ropes, subdues the bright morning sunshine, which, nevertheless, pierces the barrier in a thousand golden sword-blades of dazzling light. The still, mirror-like water, save where its surface is covered with the lush-green leaves of a fragrant blue water lily, reflects the gnarled, twisted, grey tree-roots, which protrude from the low bank and carelessly overhang it. Farther on, as we glance cautiously over the breast-high, recumbent trunk of some huge, fallen forest monster, whose under side is covered with line upon line of dirty fungi, we see an amusing sight—a score of yellow chacma baboons have come down to drink. Their antics are indescribably diverting. The old men sit or recline a little apart, watching with a slightly bored air of complacent superiority the amusements of the younger animals, who play together like so many small children. The females either carry the very young members of the family on their shoulders or hold them by the hand as they move from place to



THE RIVER SHIRÉ, SHOWING OVERGROWTH.

place. Boundless energy, immense strength, and tireless activity are here, and expend themselves in every variety of somersault and caper. All round, in the water and running about the sandy margin, multitudes of waders and shore birds are seeking their breakfast, and several crocodiles recline motionless as so many tree trunks, secure in the knowledge that the friendly spur-winged plover will give them warning when anything of a doubtful or dangerous character presents itself. This singular compact between widely different members of the creation is noticeable in the case of several animals, such as the rhinoceros, eland, and others, each of which has its attendant bird to warn it of impending peril; and one asks oneself in vain whence originated the amazing understanding whereby the approach of a common danger became the basis of a compact for the compassing of a common security. How could so strange a combination have originally sprung up, and which side, we wonder, was it to make the first advance? On the tree roots and sands, and even on the broad surface of the green water lilies, perch egrets and darters, bitterns and stilts, whilst high up on some overhanging branch, eagerly scanning the water below, great pied kingfishers are waiting for an opportunity to hurl themselves headforemost after their prey into the placid mirror-like pool. It is a peaceful scene of a beauty and interest which few who have looked upon it could ever forget. One hesitates to disturb it, seeing that there is nothing edible to tempt one's gun; but even as this resolve shapes itself in the mind, other destructive agencies

are at work. A sudden scurry among the baboons, followed by a yellowish flash, and a leopard springs from the cover behind, and striking one of the smaller animals a lightning-like blow with its paw which dashes him senseless to the ground, snatches him up and disappears at a bound. Now the beautiful picture is at an end. The storks, the bitterns, and egrets rise into the air uttering indignant, discordant cries, to an accompaniment of excited barks and squeals from the bereaved chacmas, who hurriedly leave their ill-omened drinking place, and betake themselves to the trees. The crocodiles, recovered from the first short rush they made towards the water, have dragged themselves once more upon the sand, where they compose themselves for another nap. So we pass onward, leaving them to the enjoyment of their repose. The mist has by this time entirely dispersed, and a cool morning breeze rustles refreshingly through the greenery above our heads. Through the openings in the branches the mighty form of giant Morambala looks so close in the clear morning atmosphere that one could almost, one thinks, throw a stone to the summit of that majestic mass.

Farther up the Shiré River, and still in the district of Zambezia, one reaches, it is true, a mightier mountain as one nears Chiromo. This giant, over 8,000 ft. in height, whose native name, Chiperoni, I regard as infinitely more suitable than the commonplace Mount Clarendon which has been pompously and needlessly bestowed upon it, is said to possess a healthy upland



CAPTAIN A. DE PORTUGAL DURÃO, R.N.

plateau, in which respect it would seem to resemble Morambala, where, at an elevation of about 3,500 ft., coffee plantations are, I am informed, giving results in many ways superior to those of the much-esteemed product grown in the Nyasaland Protectorate.

The steamer leaving at ten, we find ourselves, an hour later, at Bompona, on the island called Inyangoma, formed by the Zambezi and Shiré Rivers and a shallow channel called the Zui-Zuie. Here, by the kindness of Captain A. de Portugal Durão, the Zambezia Company's capable and energetic manager in Africa, we are enabled to leave the steamer, examine the island, and join her again later in the day at the Company's station at Muterara. The area enclosed by the three streams I have mentioned is known as the island of Inyangoma, is of an extent of over 160,000 acres, and possesses soil of remarkable richness. The indigenous grass is of good quality, and Senhor Magalhães, an old and valued friend of mine, tells us that the herds of cattle kept upon it now nearly number 2,000 head. Splendid cattle they are, and of fine appearance and condition. The only disease by which they have been hitherto attacked, and that without actual loss, has been a curious type of bovine dysentery. Close to the headquarters we are shown about twenty acres of cotton, destroyed by that ruthless pest the green blight.* Large numbers of well-set-up, well-fed, contented-looking natives are employed by the Company, and here, it is quite evident, there is no chance of the African being

* *Malvacearum*.

permitted to fall into those habits of slackness which beget famine and pestilence in neighbouring territories.

We now mount into machilas and start across the island for Muterara, two hours' journey hence. During the first few hundred yards we are accompanied by the whole *posse comitatus*, who run alongside the machilas, clapping their hands and yelling at the tops of their voices. These gradually tail off, however, and our conveyances, to each of which eight lusty carriers, or *machileiros*, have been told off, proceed on their way. First extensive fields of maize and millet are passed, and thereafter, still following admirably constructed wide roads, we come into the attractive open country. Many small villages and settlements appear, all the women rushing out to meet us with vociferous songs and hand-clapping, continuing beside the machilas with many remarkably friendly manifestations of good-will for considerable distances. Their songs betray no mean appreciation of the rudiments of harmony; thus one woman, selected doubtless for strength of voice—and perhaps also wind—enunciating the *leit motif* about half a bar in length, and the remainder taking up the chorus with much precision and by no means unpleasing effect. Surrounding the villages, the maize and millet gardens, of surprisingly luxuriant growth, have semi-circular spaces many square yards in extent cut, as it were, into them, where we see potatoes, onions, tobacco, tomatoes, and other appreciable vegetables thriving. Soon we traverse a densely wooded portion, con-

taining forest trees of great variety and of fine development, among them appearing numbers of the cotton trees (Kapok) which we noted at Shupanga, and gigantic, rounded, copper-foliaged khayas. Some of the latter are fully seventy feet high, and their crown of foliage is as round as a globe. Arrived at the Zui-Zuie, we proceed in large boats to cross the river, having traversed a distance of no less than twenty-eight kilometres in a little over three hours. We now set foot in the old settlement of Muterara, where the Zambezia Company possesses another fine station. Built upon an eminence about a hundred feet above the river, it consists of an old, fortified, Portuguese house, now the official residence of the courteous and capable agent, Senhor Magalhães. The house, which is of whitewashed stone, with immensely thick walls, has in front a strongly protected *pateo*, or courtyard, loopholed for musketry on the western side, the only one on which it could be approached. The east side of the house descends precipitously to the level of the river below, and commands the most magnificent views. It overlooks the confluence of the Zui-Zuie and Zambezi, here so wide as to appear more like a large lake than a river, whilst over the island of Inyangoma across the water, rising from a billowy confusion of beautiful mountain peaks, quaintly formed Pinda and gigantic tree-covered Morambala look down from their majestic four or five thousand feet, dwarfing the remainder of the fairly tall assemblage of mountains and foothills surrounding them. To the north-east, the Zui-Zuie threads its way like

a silver streak past a lovely amphitheatre of low wooded hills, the shallow stream being about a quarter of a mile wide as it sweeps past the low, boulder-strewn neck or peninsula which separates Muterara from the hills farther along its course. The true front of the building overlooks the Zambezi, and the two large wooded hills on the other shore at the back of the old settlement of Sena, whose whitewashed red-roofed buildings can just be distinguished. These two hills are called Mbala-muana (the child-carrier), one being very large, whilst the other which appears to be much smaller bears a faint resemblance to the position of a child borne on a woman's back—a rare instance of native imagination. The surrounding land, which is poor and stony, has been planted as an experiment with Sisal fibre (*Agave sigatana*), and Senhor Magalhães tells us that a little farther up the river it is proposed to try the Oil Palm (*Elaeis guineënsis*) which it is confidently expected will give good results.

In this part of the Zambezi, and especially in the district surrounding the ancient settlement of Sena, the influence of several centuries of intercourse with the European is extremely noticeable in the negro, his manners, his surroundings, and mode of life. No longer does he shelter himself beneath the roof of the squalid, tumble-down hut of small dimensions. His dwelling is large, fairly airy, and often furnished with sawn timber doors, glazed windows, and other luxuries whose uses the advance of civilisation has taught him to appreciate. Then again, the Sena people are decently

clad in clean calico, some even affecting tailor-made coats and trousers. The more prosperous among them speak Portuguese, lift their hats to each other, and display in many ways a comprehension of the broad principles of general propriety of demeanour which augurs well for a time when more attention will be lavished upon their training and instruction. The women also in many cases display much greater gravity and dignity than those who are found farther afield. Their clothing and ornaments, moreover, show at times very considerable taste, the former chosen from harmonious if somewhat violent colours, and scrupulously clean at all times; the latter, often of silver and gold, are the work of local native goldsmiths of considerable skill, who doubtless owe their superior training to the earlier religious (probably Jesuitical) Zambebian Missions.

I am, and have always been, most favourably impressed with the evident superiority of the Zambezia Company's officials, and with the admirable and painstaking manner in which, so far as an outsider can form an opinion, their important duties are carried out. Those with whom in the past it has been my privilege to come into contact have, moreover, invariably possessed that indispensable qualification for effective administration, a sound working knowledge of the native languages. In this respect alone they are greatly in advance of the *personnel* of other administrative companies of the Mozambique Province, where the capacity of individuals for acquiring native forms of speech appears to be extremely and regrettably weak.

The steamer's whistle is heard below just as we rise from a well-furnished dinner-table, but we decide to remain for the night at Muterara, and to proceed on our way at daybreak. So we spend a pleasant tranquil evening seated in front of the loopholed fortifications, and watch the ghostly effect of the moonlight upon the thin diaphanous mist which has commenced to veil the surface of the water beneath us. It is perfectly still, and the smoke from our cigarettes curls lazily upward. The trees cast deep shadows, in which fireflies wheel in their circular flight, whilst out in the open it is so light that one could easily read in the brilliant moonbeams. Morambala and the mountains across to the eastward are mere shadows on the horizon's faintly luminous outline. Scarcely any stars are visible, although the night is cloudless, so intensely clear is the light of the tropical moon. It is a picture of half-tones ; of soft, pearly greys, with something of the sharpness of a steel engraving where light meets with shadow. Native forms flit along the road, or pass us noiselessly, to vanish into the *Ewigkeit* like so many intangible phantoms. Over all, and pervading all, the ceaseless shrilling of the crickets, punctuated from time to time by the howl of a questing hyena.

The sunrise the following morning, as we watch the progress of the wonderful phenomenon from the steamer's shade deck, is one of those marvels of nature which words are surely feeble to describe. After the deepening of the first rosy flush of the dawn, Morambala, away to the eastward, displays



A CASCADE IN THE MASSOWA HILLS.

itself across the wide intervening space of glassy blue water and, as yet, dark forest land like a vast deep purple shadow against the rapidly brightening radiance behind. As the light increases, the great river takes on a lighter, opalescent, greyish green, and from dark purple the mountain shows a pale, transparent bluish grey, a belt of feathery white cirrus cloud drawn like a pencilled line across its waist. The whole of its base is wreathed in thin morning vapour of the colour one sees in mother-of-pearl, loth as yet to expose itself to the garish light of the coming day. A few minutes more and the rising sun, which has already tinged the eastern sky with a changing glory deepening from pale luminous saffron to bright transparent chrome, shoots the first beams of light across a high outlying shoulder, and in an instant the great granite boulders and rough stony outcrop of the upper peaks are all aglitter.

We are away by 7.30, ascending a gradually widening river, flanked on the north bank by the long chain of the Massowa Hills, and on the south by beautifully wooded, undulating country. About 10.30 we pass a tumbledown collection of huts and a decrepit cattle *corral*, said to belong to the Mozambique Company. The river here, I am informed, though very shallow, is fully three miles wide. The Massowa range, to which I have just alluded, springs into being directly we leave Muterara, and rises gradually from the river bank to its ridge, which may perhaps attain to a little more than 1,000 feet in height, presenting an agreeable vista of unbroken tree-covered verdure. This ridge

continues for ten or fifteen miles, when the height of the hills somewhat increases, and the conformation breaks and commences to throw up wooded peaks of great beauty, rough with glittering granite boulders, until the domelike peak of Massowa itself, from which the range takes its name, springs to fully 3,000 feet above the river. The opposite or southern bank of the Zambezi gives on to almost flat country, rising slightly a few miles from the water and alternating wide stretches of open grassland with thick bush and forest. It is noticeable that here the borassus palms grow to much greater height than is the case farther down the river, and display only a very slight midway swelling in the trunk instead of the marked increase in girth which is the singular characteristic of this striking palm. Farther on a few hours the Massowa range gets lower and lower, and finally dwindles into mere low undulations too insignificant to be referred to as hills. Crocodiles now become very numerous, every exposed sandbank being a resting-place for one or more ; several are shot, and we pass the Portuguese stern-wheel gunboat *Tete* on her way down the coast. Portugal has several light-draught gunboats on the river, and doubtless they have a salutary moral effect on the natives whose villages border the stream ; but they always strike me as being both underarmed and undermanned for work of a serious character. To-night we tie up at Sinjal, a wretched wooding station, containing two mud houses and several piles of telegraph standards, from which the following morning we are quite glad to get away. The morning is lovely, with



THE ZAMBEZI NEAR SENA.

a slight mist on the horizon. The Massowa Mountains now appear a mere blue outline astern, and the Zambezi ahead of us, although the land rises slightly on the right bank, is for many miles quite flat, and backs on to undulating, tree-covered hills, which throw up low peaks at long intervals. The aneroid here shows that we have ascended seventy-two feet above sea-level.

Down below, seated in various attitudes of restful ease on the hatches of the lighters towed alongside, the native crew and domestic servants, during the greater part of the day, lead a life of unbroken repose. Their chief duties are fulfilled in the early morning, leaving them free, except for occasional calls for unimportant services, to loiter in the luxurious indolence they love on the sunny decks below. Upon one or other of the lighters lashed alongside us there is always a wood fire burning, and upon this a native cooking-pot of vast, cavernous proportions, which, like the widow's cruse, seems always full of . . . something, simmers gently. At intervals, therefore, between short naps, or between games of cards which to European eyes are wholly destitute of rhyme or reason, or between voluble disputes with neighbouring companions of shirking disposition as to whose turn it really is now to sweep up the lower decks and carry wood to the furnaces, a short paddle-shaped spoon is thrust into the cooking-pot, and a morsel fished out and meditatively devoured. Looking back over many journeys undertaken on steamers of this class, I find it hard to recall any article, assimilable even by miracle by the human digestive system, which

I have not seen put into the cooking-pot. It is usually about three parts full, and its contents always appear to possess the inestimable quality of giving general satisfaction. Soon after the deck-washing and clearance that take place every morning, the native *personnel* assembles on the clean washed hatches of the lighters, and its component members at once commence to settle down to the tranquil enjoyment of a leisurely day. The matted sleeping bag, or "Mfumba," is placed in as advantageous a position as can be selected, and this determined upon, and an absent-minded application having been made to the cooking-pot, the African settles down to the day's repose. Of course, as he fully realises, leisure has its duties as well as its sweets, so you may see him from time to time doing a service to an overburdened comrade by cutting his coarse wool or performing some other little friendly act of a similar appreciable character. The operation of wool-cropping is one which a native never refuses to practise. It has a fascination for him which seems to communicate itself to all the idle surrounding bystanders, who at once become entranced spectators of the delicate deed. More often than not you may see the artist, with a responsible air of the grimmest determination, making desperate efforts to attain his ends by means of a pair of small folding nail-scissors, with an astonishing result on the scalp of the resigned-looking subject, who, distrustful perhaps of the operator's skill, examines from time to time the general effect of his ministrations in a tiny circular tin box with a cracked mirror let into the lid, each



THE LUPATA GORGE, WITH ZAMBEZI HOUSEBOAT.

cursory examination giving rise to serious dissension between the two, the operator resuming his task thereafter with a pained expression of wounded dignity.

About 4 p.m. we reach Ankwasi, the headquarters of the Guengue Prazo, the property of my old friend Senhor J. de Moctezuma.

We proceed at 5.30, and tie up for the night a little below Tambara, which we shall see early to-morrow morning.

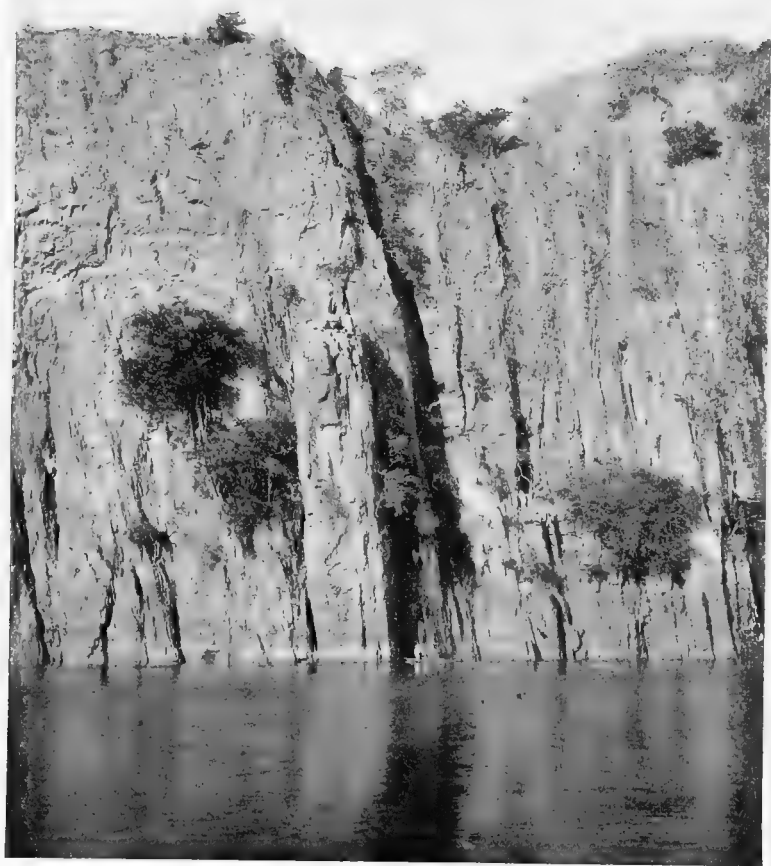
The following day the Fort of Tambara is passed at an early hour. It is a whitewashed, stone structure built to imitate the old types of Portuguese stronghold. It occupies a fine commanding position on the extremity of a high ridge overlooking the river, but, considering the character of the natives as a defence against whom it has been devised, it must have cost about eight or ten times the amount of money and labour that it need have done. This building is, I am informed, the dwelling of the sub-district collector, under the direction of the chief official at Sena. The banks of the river are very thickly populated hereabout, the gardens of maize, millet, and other commodities extending in many places to the water's edge, and even to the islands in mid-channel. Creditably devised life-sized figures of men made of straw and reeds, with imitation guns in their hands, are stationed at intervals on the river bank to scare away hippopotami, which I am told do great damage to the native crops.

And now, straight ahead, a barrier of low, undulating hills proclaims our nearness to the beautiful

Lupata Gorge, surely the most entrancing piece of Zambezi River scenery eastward of the Victoria Falls.

These hills, through which the Lupata Gorge pierces its way, present few if any distinctive features until the station of Bandar, at the entrance to the gorge, is reached. This station is situated on the north bank, at the foot of a high, rocky, tree-covered bluff, upon the stony face of which, in execrable taste, the custom has been established for passengers passing through for the first time to *paint* their names—the splendid, rugged feature being thus almost entirely spoilt. This bluff is crowned by an immense baobab tree, and both bluff and tree are objects of veneration to all passing natives, who believe them to be haunted by the spirits of the dead. On approaching, therefore, they invariably remove their head coverings, and pass by in silence. It is likewise customary from time to time to deposit, at the foot of the baobab mentioned, certain offerings of millet, flour, and other gifts, doubtless to propitiate the unseen spirit influences, and thus obtain favourable auguries of contemplated undertakings. I am also informed that the country hereabout teems with game, and that lions are especially and unpleasantly numerous.

Entering the Lupata Gorge from the eastward, the river, here much narrower than a few miles below, passes through a system of high, undulating, sparsely wooded hills, which descend sheer into the water, many rocky boulders of great size enhancing the wild beauty of the scene. A mile farther, and a high, conical peak isolates itself from its suaver neighbours, throwing a deep shadow down



CLIFFS IN LUPATA GORGE.



CLIFFS IN LUPATA GORGE.

into the water. This is called Panzu'ngoma, and shares with the bluff which we passed at the entrance the uncanny reputation of being frequented by spirits. Farther on, on the opposite side, is a long ridge of hills, the highest peak of which is densely wooded, and known as Mwana-katsitsi (the hairy child). The vegetation on the steep stony banks, which spring in some places abruptly from the water's edge, is here much thinner, and one finds baobabs in increasing numbers, acacias, and coarse-foliaged gomphias, several tall species of parinaria, and a low, shrubby tree covered with small spade-shaped, shimmering leaves which may perhaps be a species of dwarf iron wood. Some hippopotami appear in the water, and draw upon their unoffending heads the happily futile shots of the nimrods on board. At several points where the foothills recede a few hundred yards from the river, native villages peep over their surrounding palisades, and the women and children congregate outside to watch the steamer pass. These huts appear to be considerably larger, more commodious, and better built than those nearer the coast. Now the gorge sweeps round with a wide curve to the south-west, and the long ridge crowned by Mwana-katsitsi runs down to the water's edge, showing a strongly marked outline of boulder-laden bluff. The mountains themselves here and there display deep, purple-shadowed indentations, often descending gently for a few hundred feet from the summit, then suddenly falling sheer for several hundred more, as though from the effect of some terrific landslide. Farther

on the high, rocky face of the mountain is cut by deep ravines, doubtless produced by similar causes. In the midst of the second curve the shore formation to the south is that of a vast semi-circular amphitheatre, from whose sides and bottom spring more or less conical rocky peaks, their sides and heads glittering through the leafy covering with picturesque broken masses of granite. The aridness of the weather-beaten rock, which would soon become monotonous and unwelcome, is atoned for by the rich umbrageous effect of its clothing of greenery, whose variegated verdure is enhanced by the pale clayey soil one sees in the gaps between the trees. On the right bank at this point, within a distance of some three miles, by possibly as many back from the water, no less than thirteen rocky peaks similar to Panzu'ngoma may be counted, with a lovely belt of tropical vegetation surrounding their bases; the effect given being in turn that of sapphire-blue water, pale yellow grass and reeds giving on to the deep greenery of the tree belts and undergrowth, with the dark impenetrable shadows beneath; beyond and above the pale red of the clayey surface flecked by grey, sunlit granite, and fringes of feathery palm trees. The water here is much clearer, and freer from organic matter than one finds it lower down the river.

At the western extremity, and seventeen miles from the bluff at Bandar where we entered it, we pass in midstream the small granite Mozambique Island, and emerge from the Lupata Gorge. At the point of exit, huge cliffs of porphyritic formation



TETE; VIEW OF TETE FROM THE NORTH BANK.

run up several hundreds of feet, and descend sheer into the water, which is here of great depth. They are the nesting places of marabou storks, eagles, and other large raptorial birds, and furnish a striking termination to a grand piece of river scenery. Thenceforward until Tete is reached, the aspect of the Zambezi does not differ widely from the appearance it presented below the gorge, save for the increasing barrenness and stoniness of its banks.

When I was asked my opinion of the appearance of Tete, I replied that I found it a piquant combination of great picturesqueness and repellent ugliness, and that is what in reality it is. From any elevated point one casts one's eyes northward and westward, distance obliterating the unlovely elements in the picture, and the whole is harmonious and soothing. One sees a river 1,000 yards wide, flowing past a thickly wooded island of great beauty, and beyond the farther tree-clad river banks, the soft effect of purple-shaded mountain chains, marking for scores upon scores of miles the long wearisome road which leads to North-Eastern Rhodesia. What one fortunately does *not* see in this harmoniously blended colour scheme, is the detail which would rob it of so much of its attractiveness—the cracked, bare, red earth; the smallness of the badly nourished, stunted trees; the absence of shade; the hungriness of the weather-beaten, igneous rock,—the absence, in a word, of that exuberance of tropical vegetation which has lent such grace and charm to the lower courses of the Zambezi.

Tete itself is disappointing. The river, as I have just said, is wide and commanding, but the banks on both sides arid, stony, and uninteresting in the extreme. Such small quantities of coarse grass as are visible are thin and poor, and among the trees leafless baobabs predominate. The town itself, overlooked by the table-topped Carrueira Mountain, covers a large area, but so scattered are the habitations that here and there small groups of native huts have sprung up between them, a circumstance which my knowledge of native habits and customs leads me to believe can scarcely make for sanitation and health. Immediately above the well-built stone mole to which the steamers make fast, the church of the Sacred Heart, lime-washed pale blue and white, stands upon a small eminence. The streets are rough, stony, and destitute of sidewalks, the principal European houses standing on three almost equidistant ridges running parallel with the river, the hollows between forming the main roads. Several very fine modern houses have been built of late years, but the more ancient dwellings are fast falling into disrepair. The latter are of solid stone, with tiled roofs and wide verandahs. There are two fortresses, the land fort at the back of the town, and the river fort commanding the water. These are both strong and substantial, probably impregnable to native assaults, and the former is of great age. His Excellency Captain E. J. Bettencourt, the accomplished Governor of Tete, assured me that although excessively hot in the summer months, he had not found the climate either disagreeable or unhealthy. Whatever may



CAPTAIN E. J. BETTENCOURT,
Governor of Tete.

be said for it, however, there is one thing upon which this town and district are to be most cordially congratulated, namely the high character of the officials and functionaries by whom their destinies are guided. Seldom in my fairly wide knowledge of Portuguese East Africa have I found myself among such a consistently cordial, entertaining, and capable governing body. His Excellency Governor Bettencourt has long been known and esteemed by all classes for his unvarying courtesy and kindness, his great personal tact, and that ready approachableness which is the unmistakable sign of a first-class official ; but added to all this I found myself conversing with a student, a thinker, a man with a firm grasp of the situation and its needs. I do not remember that any portion of our conversation was uninteresting—certainly none was uninteresting. To the Director of the Zambezi Company, Captain A. de Portugal Durão, I have already made some allusion. Here we have energy, activity, and thoroughness personified. To a fine service record Captain Durão adds great business capacity, and that sympathetic manner which has already provided him with numbers of friends. The Zambezia Company is fortunate in possessing an official of his rare personality at the head of its important affairs in Africa.

CHAPTER IV

THE GREAT COMPANIES

ZAMBEZIA is for the most part divided between three important administrative bodies, one of which possesses a Royal Charter in almost every respect similar to that from which the British South Africa Company derives its powers. These are, in order of territorial importance, the Zambezia Company, the Mozambique Company, and the Luabo Company.

The first administers what would in Europe be considered a very fair kingdom, which, as stated elsewhere, is rather more than twice the size of Portugal itself; and although in every way the largest and most important undertaking of its kind in the Portuguese Sphere of Influence, it does not, curiously enough, possess the powers which have been extended by its charter to the Mozambique Company. Founded in 1892, the Zambezia Company is controlled by a director and sub-director in Africa, and by an administrative council in Lisbon composed of fifteen members, of which the Portuguese Government nominates five. A council of superintendence consisting of three members is elected annually for the examination and verifica-



CHURCH OF BOROVA.

tion of accounts and reports, and the general offices of the association are situated in the Portuguese capital.

I do not think it would interest my readers much if all the multifarious rights and privileges of the Company were here laid bare; it will, therefore, doubtless be sufficient to say that in exchange for the annual payment of £14,964, plus four per cent. on the value of all shares issued, they were granted the indisputable and exclusive right, among many others, to engage in such attractive occupations as pearl-fishing, gold-mining, ivory exploitation, and the development of every description of tropical agriculture; they are also empowered to construct roads, railways, and canals, to collect the hut-tax from a vast population of natives, and are granted the power to sub-let portions of their huge area on advantageous terms to such approved applicants as may present themselves. Naturally, with such an enormous slice of East Africa to administer, the Zambezia Company has done the only thing possible for an association of its by no means extravagant capital. It has divided up such portions of its concession as were found too far removed from centres of effective governance, and leased them as prazoes to companies and individuals with, in certain cases, very conspicuous success.

If we except the rapidly developing mineral areas existing, and now regularly crushing, in the north-western portion of this territory, and the promising experiments now being made with cotton, coffee, and other profitable forms of agri-

culture at Inyangoma, Muterara, and other centres on the Zambezi, it is evident that the Company's most important sphere of action is in the neighbourhood of Quelimane, where it possesses plantations containing about 150,000 'coconut palms, to which number large additions are now annually made.

The planting of coconuts and cultivation of the palm is a fascinating pursuit, and, given time to arrive at a nut-producing stage, is one of the most lucrative of African occupations. It is carried out somewhat as follows. The coconuts carefully selected, with the external covering of coir undisturbed, are planted in a *viveiro*, or nursery, about the commencement of the summer rains. The nuts, of which it is customary to plant in this way several thousands at a time, with due regard to the area which it is intended to plant out, are placed in the earth point downwards and almost if not quite touching each other. They are then covered with an inch or two of soil, and, if there should be any undue delay in the appearance of the rain, must be carefully and sedulously irrigated. After some months of warmth and moisture, the first sign of life takes the form of a minute crack in the surface of the nut, and the appearance at the point at which it left the parent stalk of a tiny, bright green leaf or frond, which spreads out slightly in the course of a few weeks until the whole is not unlike the representations of a hand-grenade which you see on the tunics of the Royal Artillery. The nursery, with its slowly germinating nuts, is allowed to remain undisturbed, but constantly irrigated, from the end of the first rainy season to the beginning

of the next one, in all about twelve or fourteen months. The young palms are now removed from the nursery and planted out in the ground which, during the dry weather, and while they have been slowly germinating, has been prepared by weeding, by the removal of tree-roots, and by the digging of shallow pits for their reception. The young palm's transfer from the nursery to the plantation should coincide with the first appearance of the summer rains, and, to produce the best results, they should be placed not less than seven to ten yards, or even a little more, apart. Thereafter all that is necessary is to keep them carefully weeded and clean, and to deposit a little coarse salt at long intervals near the roots, so that rain water, or other moisture, may dissolve and carry it down to them.

There are few, if any, members of the palm families so beautiful or so characteristic of a tropical landscape as the coconut, and, as I have stated, none more remunerative when once the full bearing stage is reached. There is no portion of this majestic growth which is not serviceable, and scarcely any which is not valuable; but little room for wonder can there be, therefore, that the East African coast is fringed with groves of coconut palms for many hundreds of miles. It is said of this species that it will never mature outside the influence of the sea-breeze; but, in spite of this oft-repeated statement, I have a perfect recollection of a particularly fine and well-grown specimen which used to furnish (and probably still does) an excellent leading mark to the vessels making the port

of Kota-Kota on the western shore of Lake Nyasa. I used to wonder at times whether its vegetable nature was as susceptible to the deceitfulness of appearances as that of poor humanity. Could it be that the foolish old palm fondly and confidently looked out day by day over the vast expanse of the ocean-like lake under the firm impression that this was indeed the sea? One speculates irresistibly on its outraged feelings could it be made to realise its years and years of melancholy self-deception. I feel convinced it would be so overwrought that it would fall down.

But to return to the Zambezia Company.

An interesting direction in which this active body has spent much time and money in experimenting is that of the cultivation of cotton. Last year I had the privilege of being conducted by the Company's able and courteous director, Captain A. de P. Durão, over a plantation which had been established on the island of Inyangoma, referred to in a previous chapter. Here was an instance of those saddening disappointments which Africa appears at times to go out of her way to occasion. In ideal conditions of climate and soil, eleven hectares were planted with carefully selected seed. Germination followed, and up to the flowering period the plantation presented a most healthy and promising appearance. Suddenly there presented itself that curse of the cotton-planter the Green Leaf Blight (*Malvacearum*), and in a few days the entire expanse became nothing more than a sered, discoloured, withered scene of desolation.

At Muterara and elsewhere, the cultivation of



ONE OF ZAMBEZIA COMPANY'S COCONUT PLANTATIONS.

Sisal fibre has been actively proceeded with, and, I understand, no less than half a million plants are thriving most encouragingly in this stony soil. A further experiment of immense importance is the plantation of several thousands of young palm-oil plants (*Elaeis guineënsis*).

In addition to the foregoing, the utmost efforts are being made to develop mining, with which important industry I shall deal at greater length hereafter.

Practically the whole of the north bank of the Zambezi from the delta to the Lupata Gorge is embraced by the concession of the Zambezia Company, and it is not too much to say that this strip of land adjoining the great stream is capable of producing annually hundreds of thousands of tons of sugar. From Lupata, however, onward to the Loangwa * River, vegetation becomes scanty, the country barren, rocky, and unproductive, the native population numerically inconsiderable, and the soil generally of small agricultural value. It was from this part of the country, we are told, that, in the early days, large quantities of gold found their way down to Quelimane, and although this is no longer the case, the precious metal gives excellent indications, whilst copper has been proved in a number of places, as we shall see hereafter.

But Zambezia comprises, in addition, almost every variety of climate and condition ; thus, when once the low, heated, malarious banks of the great waterway are left behind and you turn your face to the northward, a few days' journey will bring you

* Or Aroangwa.

into high plateau country, with elevations in the Namuli country of 3,000 feet, at Villa Paiva de Andrada 4,000 feet, and at Mecotza-cotza, on the borders of Angoniland, of 4,500 feet. Here it is cool and salubrious, well-watered by perennially running, limpid streams, and the murderous mosquito is left behind. Here, as your eye follows contour after contour of rolling, undulating, upland grass country, you realise that this is indeed a white man's home; here you could colonise and raise up healthy children, and doubtless live as long or longer than would be possible in Europe. With all this, however, fever is not unknown, even at these elevations, although I have sometimes thought that the malarial germs may after all, and in spite of the assurances we receive to the contrary, be wholly unconnected with local influences; in other words, that they may slumber in the system during the journey from the mosquito-haunted river, and make their appearance in surroundings which would not otherwise be likely to harbour them. As yet, unfortunately, with all the progress in the knowledge of tropical diseases which has been made by the medical profession, we know but little of this vital question of fever and its causes.

Zambezia as a whole consists broadly of three separate systems, which for the sake of convenience we may group as follows. The lower and best known system, which follows the course of the river, is well watered, and easy of access. Then there is the extensive elevated region I have just referred to, which, by reason of its distance from the coast and its general inaccessibility, is almost

unknown, save to a few officials or prospectors whose notes are either made for specific or confidential purposes, or are otherwise worthless for reference. Finally we have the waterless, mineralised district west of Tete, possessing a mean elevation of some 1,200 feet, and entirely destitute of agricultural possibilities, but having others which will, I doubt not, bear fruit in the future, and reveal great wealth in gold, copper, coal, and other precious substances.

Let us now turn for a moment to the south bank of the Zambezi, and glance at the territories of the chartered Mozambique Company.

The charter bears date February 11, 1891, and, amended or amplified by a subsequent document of similar character, concedes to the governing body practically sovereign rights for a long period of years over an area of some 50,000 square miles lying between the Zambezi and the 22nd parallel of south latitude, and the Indian Ocean and the frontiers of South-Eastern Rhodesia respectively.

Unhappily the Mozambique Company can scarcely be regarded as having achieved any more striking measure of success than any other concessionary body which has laboured hitherto in this part of Africa. It controls an immense and magnificent area, and possesses many descriptions of mineral and agricultural wealth; but in spite of these important natural advantages, its vast, if hitherto financially unproductive territory, though traversed by an admirably served railway system and assisted by a port of which doubtless much might be made, has never quite succeeded in

realising the high hopes which were at one time entertained for its future. In the first few years of the present decade, considerable movement was visible in the port of Beira, but, from the conclusion of the South African War onward, each year has disclosed more and more evidence of the unresponsiveness of events, until at length, after considerable expenditure of its modest capital, the Mozambique Company now finds itself still at a distance from the dividend-earning period for which it has so ardently and courageously striven during a chequered history extending over nearly twenty years. By dint of almost superhuman exertion, economy, and retrenchment, its annual deficiencies have, it is true, been greatly lessened, and it is to be hoped that by doubling its native hut-tax, as has, I understand, been of late resolved upon, and by other means still under consideration, the future may yet do something to enable this association to fulfil the useful mission which was originally predicted for it.

The same unhappy fate which has pursued the governing body would seem to have largely befallen its subsidiary companies, were it not that from this unfortunate background one enterprise stands boldly out as the exception which may pave the way to other successes of a similar character. This is the recently established British Sena Sugar Factory, Limited, which there is little doubt, judging by the success which has attended the two kindred associations already in existence in the same neighbourhood, has a fine future before it. These three important organisations, and the valu-

able work they are carrying on, will claim our attention in a future chapter.

But in addition to the important sugar industry above mentioned, there is, a little farther to the south, another growing enterprise now in course of development which should not escape our attention. This is the exploitation of a very valuable concession at Guara-Guara and Massanzane, near Beira, granted some years ago to that well-known South African Mr. A. L. Lawley. To Mr. Lawley Beira is already indebted for much. The Beira and Mashonaland Railway, from which the port derives the greater measure of its importance, was one among several others of South Africa's railway systems which owe their efficient construction, if not their existence, largely to Mr. Lawley, and now that he has devoted his remarkable energies to the furtherance of his agricultural interests in Massanzane Bay, a satisfactory result is a foregone conclusion. At Guara-Guara, then, it is intended to produce rubber, cotton, sugar, and other valuable products; indeed, I believe I am right in saying that the two former are already giving something in the way of results; whilst at Massanzane many thousands of coconut palms have been and will be planted. The Mozambique Company is, therefore, fortunate in having another promising undertaking within its borders, which, in its success, will doubtless go far to convince the dubious of the value of the territory over which it presides.

If it were not for the gardens of the beautiful Mission Station of the Immaculate Conception, established by a prominent Roman Catholic Order

at Shupanga, it would be difficult to point to any spot upon the Zambezi falling beneath the Mozambique Company's administration 'whereat attempts have been made to develop existing agricultural resources. In spite, therefore, of this association's strenuous and not seldom well-directed efforts in other portions of its fine territory, one is forced to regard the sugar produced by the British undertaking mentioned above as the only attempt at active exploitation in the portion of their concession which is bounded by the River Zambezi.*

I suppose the real reason for all this unfortunate want of success arises largely from the fact that, with a confidence in the future upon which one cannot look without sympathy, the company undertook at the outset somewhat more than it had the means of adequately dealing with; thus, with a capital of only one million sterling, it covenanted to assume the effective administration of an enormous area of country, and bound itself:

1. To fulfil the terms of all foreign treaties and conventions.
2. To organise an administrative system similar to that existing in other parts of Portuguese East Africa, and to pay the officials employed.
3. To pay half the cost of the judicial and ecclesiastical departments, the *personnel* being nominated by Lisbon.
4. To establish primary schools in all settlements containing more than 500 inhabitants.
5. To establish agricultural schools and experimental stations.
6. To organise police forces both on land and sea.
7. To establish, within a period of ten years, within its concession, 1,000 families from Portugal, and furnish them with grants of land.

* I am happy to learn that recent experiments afford the most hopeful indications of success in various forms of agriculture lately attempted.

8. To construct a railway from the Pungwe River to the British frontier.
9. To concede to the Government at Lisbon 10 per cent. of the share capital as issued in fully paid-up shares ; also $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the profits until dividends of 10 per cent. should be declared, and 5 per cent. of profits thereafter.

There were, in addition, some other more or less difficult undertakings which were duly accepted, whereupon the company received control of the region which it still administers.

On reading through the foregoing, one is seized with the conviction that the Zambezia Company across the river, with a much wider concession and equally important possibilities, cannot but feel vastly relieved to have been spared the doubtful benefits which a charter containing the above formidable list of serious obligations would have conferred. Of what benefit are sovereign rights when they are accompanied by such an array of conditions that, after superhuman efforts to fulfil them, the harassed company now finds itself with a considerable period of its chartered existence elapsed, the greater part of its capital issued, and certainly not more than one would expect it to show for all this expenditure of effort and time and money ?

Still, with all this, there can be no doubt that the Mozambique Company did what it could to carry out its obligations. It might perhaps have been more successful than it has been in this direction had it not been for certain unfortunate restraining influences by which, in the past, it has been greatly hampered.

This important association possesses on the Zambezi five sub-districts, Lacerdonia, Inyaruca,

Chemba, Tambara, and Sança, which are all, I believe, directed by a superior official—a kind of Collector of Revenues—who resides at Sena.

These administrative officials lead a pleasant if somewhat monotonous existence, and, for this among other reasons, should be chosen with the utmost care. Some I have known who were veritable walking encyclopædias of general knowledge; they could tell you all about native customs and peculiarities, of natural history, and of curious local conditions of various kinds. I am afraid, however, these were the exceptions. The average commandant, as they are styled within their districts, does not as a rule occupy his spare time in the pursuit of information calculated to widen our knowledge of the obscurer pages of natural science, and this is a lamentable fact which inseparably connects itself with the unfortunate paucity of our information regarding African flora and fauna. He is, moreover, still swayed by that pernicious system whereby, instead of being paid a fixed salary for his labour, one which would be considered a sufficient and remunerative living wage, he is, in some portions of the country, still recompensed by a comparatively low stipend supplemented by a commission or percentage on the amount of his receipts, both from hut-tax and native produce, which latter he collects for export. It consists chiefly of rubber and bee's-wax, and by rubber I mean, of course, indigenous rubber of which very large quantities are still obtainable in these parts of Africa. Still, putting aside the by no means onerous duties imposed upon them, the district

commandants have, without question, ample leisure which might be most profitably employed in the study of languages, of native questions, and, as I have said, in the classification and collection of specimens of many branches of natural history. There can be no doubt that, in the absence of some such distraction or amusement, the lives these men lead may become unhealthy in the extreme, both from a physical and moral point of view. There is nothing in the shape of public opinion to restrain them from habits which they would probably shrink from contracting in surroundings which brought them into daily contact with their fellow-countrymen and women ; and thus connections are formed which are in many cases (if not in most) the direct outcome of lonely and, it may be, uncongenial surroundings, added perhaps to a certain slackness into which men who are far removed from the influence of public opinion are at times apt to fall. Personally I do not think that these intimacies with the daughters of the land of the European's adoption arise usually from any preconceived determination to give rein to an innate vicious propensity ; I prefer to regard them as the outcome of the almost pathetic yearnings of the isolated individual for the intimate society of some person, of no matter what colour, within whose mind he may, after a time, succeed in sowing the seeds of that inestimable consolation and blessing which we call sympathy.

Let me endeavour to give an inadequate picture of the abode and surroundings of a Zambebian sub-district officer or commandant.

You have been marching along a burning path all day perhaps, and, it may be, are somewhat out of your reckoning, when it suddenly dawns upon you that the narrow native path, with its many needless sinuosities and spiteful hindrances in the shape of tall, scratching grasses, and annoying unlooked-for tree-trunks, has suddenly straightened out and widened considerably. From some distance away comes the hum of voices, punctuated by the yapping of a dog and the thudding of mortars. Finally, along a pleasant green vista of luxuriant banana fronds, several mud houses with heavy thatched roofs make their appearance, and these once passed, you emerge into a good-sized open space enclosed on three sides by stores, magazines, and police quarters, and on the fourth by the commandant's residence. In the middle of this space, which is kept scrupulously swept, a flag-staff is standing, from whose summit floats the harmonious colouring of the Portuguese national flag. The commandant hurries forth to meet you with an air of grave courtesy, and is usually inexpressibly relieved if he finds you are able to speak a little Portuguese. Should this be beyond your powers, however, he exerts himself to remember any fragments of English or French which may still form part of the flotsam and jetsam of his more cosmopolitan memory, and in the end you succeed in understanding one another perfectly. A comfortable chamber is then pointed out, a bath prepared, and finally, refreshed from the fatigues of the long day's march, you seek out your host, whom you find busily engaged in making arrangements for

your native escort. An adjournment is now made to what looks like a very high circular native hut without any walls, just a roof supported on poles. This, you are informed, is primarily the dining-room, but an apartment daily used for rest and refreshment as well. Here cool the canvas water-bottles, hanging high up in any breeze that may be stirring. Here meals are served, and the succeeding siesta is enjoyed. Three or four easy-chairs are scattered about, one of which, a miracle of clumsiness and comfort, was made, it appears, by the commandant's carpenter, who is an Indian undergoing imprisonment (or at least confinement) for some offence committed on a passing river steamer.

After a little conversation on your journey and plans, comes the inevitable invitation to visit the vegetable gardens, so you go, accompanied by João and Manoel the gardeners. You are surprised to find an excellent selection of healthy vegetables, and are politely sympathetic about the havoc created by caterpillars and beetles among the cabbages and lettuces, by ants on the radishes, and upon everything that grows therein by the stupidity and unintelligence of the natives in charge: how João transplanted the cress, and how Manoel planted Morton's tinned peas under the firm impression that they would give an excellent crop, etc. etc.

At sunset, a hoarse shout from the police quarters is followed by the beating of a native drum. Several important-looking native police, armed with Snider rifles, appear, and with portentous gravity crudely present arms, and you

remove your hat as the Portuguese flag is reverently lowered and folded up for the night. A delicious coolness now makes itself felt, and on returning to the dining-room you see that a clean cloth has been laid therein, whilst appetising odours float ever and anon from the neighbouring kitchen. In the meantime, you visit the commandant's office, and are rewarded by the discovery of a fine collection of antelope heads, with one or two pairs of buffalo horns, and the skull of a small female hippopotamus from the neighbouring river. Your chief care must now be to abstain from admiring these trophies too eloquently, for assuredly if you do your host will not be satisfied unless you accept them, or some of them. Then your eye is plucked to a dado of gay Indian cloth surrounding the varnished boarding of the walls, whereon hang coloured portraits of their Majesties of Portugal, together with photographs of the members of your host's family, with whom he hopes to spend his leave at Alcobaça next year. You then make some complimentary remarks concerning the quality and serviceableness of two archaic rifles lying in a corner, and express well simulated surprise on being told, with a deprecating smile, that the commandant is, personally, not much of a sportsman. He has, you are informed, two excellent native hunters to whom he confides his ancient weapons, and who bring him in guinea-fowls and venison for his solitary table. Also that one of these, Sangaroti by name, was knocked down only the week before last by a charging buffalo, and still walks lamely. "But what can you

expect with guns like these? They have been good ones; yes, that is true, but now they lend themselves to nothing."

An excellent dinner follows, with no lack of good, sound Portuguese wine, somewhat interrupted by the large fluffy moths which persistently fall into the soup, and the hundred-and-one other winged abominations of the night, which in all the extent of the Zambezi Valley seem to have been specially devised for the annoyance of man.

On the morrow, as you take your leave, you notice for the first time in the morning light that your host's house contains but three rooms, and is surrounded by a slightly raised verandah, and that the corrugated-iron roof is covered with thatch for coolness, and also to deaden the thunder of the summer rain-storms. As he accompanies you courteously to the confines of his domain, reiterating perfectly sincere regrets that your stay with him has been such a short one, you look back as you leave him, and sympathy for a life so cut off from its kind almost stifles the last vestige of reprobation of any lax principles which may by accident have forced themselves upon your notice.

There is probably no more hospitable nation in the world than the Portuguese; and not only do they practise this virtue themselves, but, in most parts of the country, they impose it as a law upon the natives also.

It would be well both for our natives and our own reputation were we in some of our own colonies to adopt the same excellent practice.

The Luabo Company's concession, compared

with the immense areas controlled by the two important associations we have just been considering, is almost insignificant. It includes practically the whole of the delta of the Zambezi, and the islands thereby created, and the southern bank of the great river up to Marroméo, the scene of activity of the great French Sugar Company which I have already referred to—in all perhaps not more than an inconsiderable two or three thousand square miles of country. Founded in 1894, this small but active body has done much within its comparatively circumscribed area to develop its holding, and has carried out many interesting and instructive experiments, which it is hoped, and I think with reason, may in the future indicate avenues leading to considerable sources of profit. It possesses flourishing coconut plantations, and produces very considerable quantities of indigenous rubber, rice, ground-nuts, sesamum, millet, and wax. For all of these, except of course the rubber and wax, local markets are found at Quelimane and Chinde, the latter port enabling the company, moreover, to realise quite an appreciable revenue from the sale of wood for fuelling the Zambezi steamers. Within the Tete district, the Luabo Company also possesses an important and, it is believed, highly mineralised prazo which has given encouraging indications of the presence of gold. This it is hoped to prospect thoroughly in the near future, when we shall doubtless hear more of it.

Among the several not inconsiderable associations which are labouring to develop the eastern

portions of the territory, that which from many points of view has achieved a most striking success is the Société du Madal, of which his Highness the Prince of Monaco is, I understand, an interested supporter.

This body holds under a Royal Decree the large and important prazoes or districts of Madal, Tangelane, Cheringone, and Mahindo, comprising an area of some 700,000 acres, and possessing the striking advantage of proximity to the important settlement of Quelimane. Here again we have an association labouring for agriculture, and one which has established many model stations for the facilitation of its numerous enterprises. Much attention and considerable outlay have been devoted to the opening up of roads, to the laying down of a small Decauville railway which extends for some 15 kilometres, and to the developing of navigable waterways for the appreciable object of the rapid transport to the coast of their numerous products.

They possess already, it is said, no less than 125,000 coconut palms, whilst their exports include on an increasing scale large quantities of copra, rice, bee's-wax, rubber, and native cereals.

Great advantage has been derived from the Société du Madal's workshops, which comprise saw-mills, ironworks, brick and tile factories, and boat-building yards, in which the untrained native has, by intelligent supervision, been educated to a point which now enables him to turn out most superior work, thus rendering this active association largely independent of expensive European labour, and enabling it to almost bid defiance to all the

hindrances and annoyances which the African climate so successfully devises for the ruin of machinery and labour-saving appliances.

Such, briefly, is the activity now endeavouring courageously to utilise the resources of a portion of Africa which, until recent years, has been almost a *terra incognita* to those whose immediate interests did not lie within the mighty environment of the great dark continent. And what a labour it has been, and what brain-wearing difficulties have had to be surmounted, only those know whose path has led them to these hitherto waste places of the earth. But assuredly they are giving a good account of themselves, and, more important still, leaving the country in a better condition than that in which they found it. I doubt not that as one's knowledge of how to overcome the myriad discouragements and difficulties stored up in a concentrated form in Africa widens; as we learn how to overcome its unhealthiness, and to make provision to counteract the exasperating manner in which things so inevitably seem to get out of joint, all these important companies and zealous individuals who are now struggling so hard to wrest a return from so many centuries of entire unproductiveness, will realise a reward which should be a large one, even as the value of their efforts will have been incalculable.

I do not think anybody who has not lived in Africa can realise the annoyances which there attend almost every portion of a new undertaking. You order, for example, some article of machinery from home, for some important purpose for which it appears to be indispensable. After some months



ONE OF SOCIÉTÉ DU MADAGASCAR'S COPRA DÉPÔTS.

of patience and weary waiting, the mail brings letters bearing on the envelope the stamp of the manufacturer you have applied to. With trembling fingers you tear it exultingly open, and find that he has sent you something which is "not quite what you ordered, but really a better article for the purpose." You return it with an indignant letter, and after more months of delay the goods originally ordered are delivered, and you find, as you eagerly muster the various parts to adjust them, that some vital screw or indispensable valve has been omitted, or lost in transit, or stolen, and again you have to submit to still more delay. It is a country in which nothing can be safely relegated to the supervision of another—nothing left to chance, or you find to your cost the truth of the adage which advocates the doing of all things oneself.

My own view of the future of the vast area we call Zambezia is that its development will not be achieved by large concessionary companies. They are too unwieldy, or rather, the needs of the concessions entrusted to their governance are too numerous, intricate, and multifarious to be supplied by even the most painstaking and conscientious of directing boards. Instead of two or three developing companies, we need two or three hundred, all engaged in the prosecution of well-devised schemes under the benevolent *surveillance* of an active and at the same time liberal government. This sounds like idealism, perhaps, but its realisation is not, I think, so difficult to compass as may appear at first sight. If we come to ask ourselves, after a careful examination of what the great

companies upon the Zambezi have to show for their many years of effort, what they have actually accomplished, it must be confessed that the net result is disappointingly small; that the gigantic task which they set themselves at the outset has been entirely out of proportion to their physical or financial powers. Why not endeavour to remedy this? Why not take the only step possible to populate these rich lands which have for so many centuries lain idle and fallow? Throw open the country to industry and agriculture. Make its acquisition for legitimate objects easy to whomsoever will come and devote his time and his capital to increasing its value. Let the governing companies make free grants of land to approved persons, as is done elsewhere, and wait for their reward until success in its cultivation is assured. That success will not, of course, come in all cases, but even those who fail will have done no harm, whilst those who succeed will have done more to dispel the existing gloom than all the well-meant but unconcentrated efforts of the present undercapitalised administrative bodies.

A director or manager of a large association controlling such areas as those above described surveys his responsibilities as a confused, nebulous whole. He is unable, unless he be a sort of administrative Napoleon, to devote proper attention, even had he the capital at his command, to tasks of such magnitude and variety as those which demand it of him, the inevitable result being something attempted and but little done. If, on the other hand, the same director or manager

found himself directing the destinies of an estate of moderate dimensions, that he was one of many similarly circumstanced, and that his powers of organisation and arrangement were not overtaxed by the calls made upon them, then he could apply concentrated energy to the accomplishment of his objects, an additional incentive to endeavour being furnished by busily competing neighbours. Then, instead of paying eternal ground-rents, and hampering his undertaking by the acceptance of conditions which he cannot be sure at the outset of his ability to fulfil, the industrial or agricultural developer of the future would commence his enterprise with far more peace of mind, secure in the knowledge that instead of a grasping task-master, eyeing with calculating self-satisfaction every success he achieved, he would possess in his landowner a benevolent agency whose interests were wholly bound up in his own.

Africa has in the past had enough of large landed companies. In fact, this portion of the continent has suffered from a positive epidemic of them; and yet I do not know of a single enterprise of this character, either in our own or any other sphere of influence, which has attained to anything like conspicuous success, either financially or, indeed, from the point of view of fostering either industry or agriculture.* They have tried to do these things, and have brought to bear upon the questions connected with them the mature judgment and ripe experience of men of exceptional prominence and

* I am speaking, naturally, of landed companies unprovided with a charter.

ability. But these are not in all cases the men to diagnose the disease and prescribe the remedy. It is only the man who has lived upon the spot who sees local needs and knows how to supply them ; the man whose judgment is formed by failure as well as success, who can, after all, come forward and point to the weak spots in the administrative or other machinery, and show how they may be advantageously strengthened. And yet these are the men whose views are seldom or never heard, because, if they were, it is clear that their representations would go to the root of the matter, and, in their adoption, completely subvert existing methods. None of the great undertakings at present engaged in Africa are in a position seriously to contemplate anything in the nature of a complete revision of policy, and yet by that means, and that means only, can the wilderness be made to rejoice, and can individual capital be successfully attracted to the eminently suitable fields for its employment to be found at almost all points of the Zambezi Valley.

Another thing which is required is railway communication between the coast and the frontiers of the Nyasaland Protectorate, and not until this indispensable auxiliary is supplied will this splendid region be able to stretch its cramped limbs, and deal with those perhaps unsuspected resources which faulty, and sometimes non-existent, transport renders it practically impossible to satisfactorily develop.

The amazing fact that across a country not 300 miles wide, presenting not one serious engineering

difficulty, and furnishing stone, timber, and other material in abundance, so necessary an adjunct as railway communication should have been so long neglected, fills one with astonishment, especially when account is taken of the number of lines which have been established for purposes which seem trivial in comparison. Not only would a railway from Quelimane to the western frontier bring Blantyre to within a few hours of the sea, but it would serve to remove the unpleasant uncertainty attending the arrival, and at times even the safety, of important consignments of merchandise so frequently nowadays ruined, or lost perhaps, during the more precarious periods of the Zambezi river transport.

I suppose some day this railway will come. It is almost as necessary for British as for Portuguese purposes—I had almost said more so—and would assuredly serve a most desirable end if it led to the abandonment of Chinde, and the transfer of the British Concession, the dépôts of the Zambezi shipping companies *et hoc genus omne* to Quelimane. The latter would then become a thriving and busy centre, the port of entry into Zambezia, Nyasaland, North-Eastern Rhodesia, and the countries soon to be opened up by the line from Cape Town to Cairo, and, in addition, would go far to throw open to the extensive travelling public those magnificent sporting regions of mountain and lake which South Central Africa possesses in such numbers and variety.

CHAPTER V

THE PRAZOES, THEIR ORIGIN AND INDUSTRIES :
COCONUTS, RUBBER, OIL-SEEDS, COFFEE, COTTON,
SUGAR, TOBACCO, AND MINERALS

NOT only in Zambezia, but in almost all parts of the Portuguese Province of Mozambique, the system of leasing large areas of land to syndicates and private individuals has been customary for several centuries, the practice having arisen chiefly from the inability or disinclination of the State to increase its burden of administrative expenditure by adding to its establishment of colonial officials.

As we have seen in a previous chapter, the first prazoes, as these districts of land came in time to be called, were established about the beginning of the seventeenth century, since it would appear that many of the Portuguese at that time resident in the basin of the Zambezi succeeded in obtaining considerable grants of land from the native chiefs to whom it then belonged. Some of these men are said to have secured the allegiance of prominent sections of some of the existing tribes, and to have led the lives of petty rulers, even making war on surrounding chieftains, as well as, on occasion, upon such of their own countrymen as were similarly



QUELIMANE.

circumstanced. In course of time, their descendants by native wives, still nominally Portuguese, in spite of their growing darkness of complexion, fell away from one cause or another from the position of rulers, but retained some control over the land itself, and, naturally, over their large inheritances of slaves. A superior of one of the Jesuit convents on the Zambezi, in a report to the Viceroy of India in the middle of the seventeenth century, stated that practically the whole of the south bank of the river from Coroabassa Rapids downwards was held by individuals of Portuguese nationality, one of these, Manoel Paes e Pinho, being reported to have assumed supreme authority over a prazo the size of a considerable kingdom, largely inhabited, and of great value and importance. Some of these areas were, it is true, held direct from the Portuguese Crown at quitrent, the old feudal condition of military service in time of war being also imposed. It naturally followed, therefore, that some of these men acquired immense influence and great wealth, and lived in considerable rude state. Their hospitalities, for example, were regal in their barbarous munificence, and their visits among each other invariably gave occasion for astounding display, each endeavouring to outdo the other in the grandeur of his appointments, the number of his slaves, and the beauty of his concubines and other dependants. In this way, accustomed to the exercise of unrestrained authority, and far removed from the salutary influence of governmental control, an amount of lawlessness broke out in this part of the country which became a serious source of

uneasiness to the Captain-General at Mozambique. Finally an officer was despatched to restore order, and to demand the surrender of certain prazoes which had been taken possession of by force of arms. But his authority was too feeble ; the prazo-holders, strong in their position of feudal chieftains, laughed him to scorn. In short the position was chaotic, anarchical, and, worse than all, so exhausted were the resources at the command both of Portugal and Mozambique that not a man could be spared to chastise these law-breaking outcasts.

At length the singular expedient was devised of sending out from Portugal a number of young women to the Zambezi, for reasons which are not very clear, but who were apparently intended to purify the blood of the existing half-breed prazo-holders. These latter, in consideration of obtaining the prize of a European helpmate, were to covenant that the succession of their property should go in the female line instead of through their sons ; thus, the eldest daughter was to inherit and marry a pure Portuguese, whose eldest female child should do likewise, until, at the death of the third heiress, the prazo was to revert to the Crown. The success or failure of this original scheme has not, so far as I am aware, come down to us, and the old order continued for many years, until finally the great landed proprietors of the period we have been considering signed their own death-warrants by excessive participation in the slave-traffic, which so decimated their prazoes and exhausted their powers of resistance, that automatically they sank in course of time to a point whereat they ceased to be the

menace to law and order which for a century and a half they had continued.

At the present time, as the outcome of legislative measures which have occupied the attention of the Cortes in Lisbon at intervals since the events I have just outlined, the system which has become so widely known, and has been so adversely criticised, under the name of the prazo-system, consists mainly in the letting or leasing by the State to approved persons or associations of the sole right of collection of native taxes and imposts in a given area called a prazo. Zambezia, therefore, has been divided into a large number of these areas, which are known as Crown prazoes, principally for the purpose above stated—namely, that of facilitating the collection of the native taxes within their limits.

Generally the boundaries of the regions so conceded are accurately defined, especially in the cases of those belonging to the Government as distinct from those sublet by the great administrative companies. On an application for a prazo being made, an immediate census of the native population is proceeded with, whereupon the area as it stands is offered at auction to the highest bidder, the upset amount of rent payable being 50 per cent. of the native tax-revenue capable of collection as calculated on the basis of the census taken. The prazo is then let to whomsoever offers the highest rent over and above the value of half such tax-revenue as stated.

From the moment he enters into possession of his estate, the proprietor, or his agent, wields the authority of a native magistrate. He has power to

arm and maintain a force of what are practically military police ("sypaes"), and to him come all the native inhabitants of his prazo for the settlement of their disputes and all other questions. Clearly his first object is to collect as much tax-revenue as he possibly can, since, as we have seen, an important portion of his income consists of the moiety which the Government permits him to retain; and this done, the average prazo-holder, I fear, regards the greater portion of his year's work as accomplished. Naturally his contract with the State—his lease, as we should call it—which is usually one of twenty-five years, obliges him to undertake certain works for the purpose of improving and developing the area conceded to him. He covenants to cultivate annually a given area, to open up roads, erect buildings, and, in some cases I understand, to take steps towards educating the natives over whom he exerts authority. These latter portions of his lease, although nowadays more faithfully carried out than they were, at one time gave the proprietor no sort of uneasiness. He carried them out only in so far as he was compelled, and at times, in the remoter regions where *surveillance* never came, his position and general mode of life were not dissimilar from those of the old-time prazo-holder of the early seventeenth century, whose iniquities so strongly exercised the Jesuit monk who reported on them to the viceroy of that stormy period.

Clearly the system arose from want of means; from the inability of the State itself to act as the developing agent; and from its eagerness to welcome

the proposals of whomsoever was prepared to relieve it of its administrative responsibilities. Properly carried out, the idea was a good one, and even as it stood the system became in time an excellent instrument of effective occupation. I have no hesitation in saying that, to whatsoever degree the individual Portuguese may be hampered by want of capital or want of encouragement, he does not, as a rule, lack any of those qualities which go to make a successful tiller of the soil. He is sober, tenacious, a good workman, and resists the effects of climate more successfully than other Europeans. He has still within him, moreover, a dash of that adventurous spirit which in the past led his old-time countrymen so far ; and it therefore followed that, at a time when the inland confines of the vast Portuguese sphere of influence were but vaguely known, men of the class described no sooner found themselves transformed into rulers of immense districts and controlling a force which they were by law permitted to maintain, than they at once turned their eyes towards the unknown, and enlarged their borders as they imposed their influence at one and the same time. By this means, before our attention came to be directed by Livingstone and his missionary successors to what is now the colony of Nyasaland, the Portuguese occupation had been carried on so far inland that it enabled a very strong claim to be laid to portions of the regions bordering on Nyasa which have since come under British administration. An excellent comparison of the prevailing characteristics of the Anglo-Saxon and the Portuguese colonists was

recently made by a very distinguished authority of the latter nationality in a report lately published in Lisbon on the prazo-system of the district we are considering. He said: "Whilst the Anglo-Saxon colonist is *par excellence* practical, and his primary object is the acquisition of wealth, the Portuguese of the same class exerts himself no more than may be necessary from the moment that his income yields him a moderate and regular livelihood. If, however, to the prospect of money-making, in itself a consideration usually insufficient to carry the Portuguese agriculturist far, be added the possibility of compassing personal distinction, as in the case of prazo-holders of the old type, then he is capable of executing prodigies. It was the desire of notoriety, a thirst for fame, rather than purely a question of gain, which in the past led the prazo-proprietor in his advance into the interior, where he subjugated the tribes at the head of his own forces." With this view of the question I entirely concur, for I am persuaded that by no other means could the Portuguese have acquired and maintained the ascendancy they possessed in these regions in the middle decades of the nineteenth century, had it not been for the astonishing enterprise of the early proprietors, who pushed, not always by the most desirable means, it is true, the knowledge of civilisation forward into the heart of the African continent, and, be it noted, by the strength of their own commanding personalities and without any support from a preoccupied Government.

It would be difficult to ascertain correctly the

actual number of prazoes existing within the whole of the great region which this work is endeavouring to describe, but from the fact that, in addition to the immense area still under active development by that body, the Zambezia Company alone has sublet no less than fifty-one, it will be understood that there are many more than could be traced without the expenditure of very considerable time and trouble.

Of course those prazoes situated nearest to the coast, as also those within tolerably easy distance of Quelimane and the main streams of the Zambezi, have more to show as the outcome of industrial effort than the remoter concessions, and here we see some noteworthy results; but even yet there remain to the north of Quelimane immense tracts of country which might be, and assuredly one day will be, subdivided into prazoes. These are of extraordinary fertility, and doubtless possess sufficient of a native population to enable development to be satisfactorily prosecuted; naturally, however, for reasons which are not difficult to understand, the chief attention has been lavished upon the more accessible areas, and they have now much to show for the great labour and outlay which have been in the past expended upon them.

The principal form of agricultural exploitation pursued near the coast is that of the plantation and cultivation of the coconut palm, and so actively and perseveringly is this important work being carried on that I look to this portion of the province to furnish, a few years hence, as much or more of that valuable product copra * as is shipped

* The dried edible substance of the coconut.

at the present time from any portion of the East Coast of Africa. Several of the larger concession-holders possess immense plantations of this profitable palm, one in particular numbering no less than 400,000, in addition to a quarter of a million young trees. Much attention has been paid of late years, moreover, to the plantation of various kinds of fibre-producing plants, especially that known as the Sisal (*Agave*); the large plantations of coffee have produced most satisfactory results in the more elevated portions of the country, and valuable experiments have also been made with several kinds of imported rubber-producing trees, notably the Manihot, *Castilloa elastica*, Maniçoba, and others. On a recent journey which I made up the Zambezi, I was much struck by the healthy and promising appearance presented by a thriving grove of oil-palms (*Elais guineënsis*), for which I consider the Zambezi Valley, with its moist, heated atmosphere and rich soil, is a peculiarly suitable locality. Then again we have the common ground-nut (*Arachis hypogeia*), which might be made an extraordinarily remunerative article of export, but with which hitherto but little has been done. In 1906 the total amount of the ground-nuts exported from Zambezia only totalled 1,800 tons, whereas the quantity which could be raised is limitless. Maize, millet, castor-oil seeds, beeswax, manioc (*Cassava*), and various kinds of beans and oleaginous seeds, are also cultivated for export, but chiefly by natives; the crop as soon as it is harvested passing into the hands either of the prazo authorities in payment or part payment of the yearly hut-tax, or

into those of the British Indian merchant, by whom it is paid for in cloth and beads and passed on to the European business house in Quelimane or Chinde which supports him by supplying barter goods on generous credit terms. It will, therefore, be seen that the larger and more important concessionnaires in Zambezia have hitherto devoted their attention almost exclusively to the cultivation of the coconut palm, the coffee plant, and, experimentally, to cotton, sugar, rubber, rice, and a few other commodities of comparative unimportance. Of course I must not be understood to include in these remarks the three large sugar-planting companies established upon the Zambezi, which have obtained most encouraging results, and of whose efforts some further description will hereafter be given.

I am convinced that the future of Zambezia depends upon the development of its agriculture, and that although doubtless valuable mineral resources exist, they will only form a weak second line in the movement which will sweep this district forward on the road which leads to prosperity. And in this form of development, though I fancy the consciousness of the fact is but dimly realised by those now working in these regions, there is a double source of gain. Not only, as we have seen, are there many exotic forms which can be and are being planted with profit, but there are multitudes of indigenous growths of which nothing like enough has been made in the past. I refer principally to native rubber, tobacco, and ground-nuts, with each and all of which there is much to be done. There

are several rubber vines, but the most common, even as their latex is the most valuable, are the *Landolphia florida* and the *L. kirkii*. Hitherto the prazo-holders who have been fortunate enough to discover these lianas on their concessions have never thought—I am speaking, of course, of the average unthinking individual whose horizon is limited by the needs of the moment—of planting out more and more of these vines. They have been content to tap existing plants, often heedlessly and unskilfully, and thus, in the course of time, many large areas have been wholly denuded of rubber-producing growths of any description. Much may be done to add to the chances of the future by sedulously planting these two rubbers, and as they thrive readily in suitable soil and environment, the operation resolves itself into a task which presents no greater difficulties than sowing and afterwards planting out any ordinary form of garden produce. By the agriculturists of the Mozambique Company on the other side of the river this has been largely done in recent years, as also, I understand, by the Luabo Company in the forests of Shupanga; but the success of these experiments loses much of its interest by the uncertainty as to the age at which the young plants arrive at the yielding period. I have not as yet met any person who could satisfactorily answer that question, and thus it follows that, although many hundreds of thousands of young vines have been planted out by the two associations I have named, those interested are naturally robbed of the pleasure of looking forward to a definite return at a definite

date, and must continue to regard the experiment as one which may not mature in time to benefit the present generation at all.

Cotton has emphatically not succeeded. I do not mean by this that none has been sent home. Sample consignments have, on the contrary, been shipped to Europe which have sold for high prices ; but they have been the outcome of careful selection, or else resulted from fortunate and therefore exceptional climatic conditions upon which it would be fatuous to rely. Not only is the rainfall of the lower Zambezi far too capricious for so sensitive a growth as the cotton bush, but Africa with her astonishing resourcefulness has lost no time in discovering an agency against which cotton-planters have hitherto struggled in vain. This is the *Malvacearum*, or green-fly pest. It comes just as the healthy appearance of the plantation arouses hopefulness almost amounting to confidence of complete success. One morning the luckless planter notes with a feeling of nervous apprehension that some of the tender green leaves of the shrubs are shrivelled and discoloured. The next day, with a sharp intake of breath, he sees the discoloration has spread. Dismayed and alarmed he seeks the counsel of his neighbours, and learns that he may now cut down every acre he has planted, and that his toil and care have been thrown away. There you get Africa all over. If it had not been green fly, locusts would probably have been the cause of the failure. Everything agricultural has been expressly furnished with one or more hostile agencies, and these are chiefly of an insect character.

Let us now turn to the Sugar plantations, the most important industrial undertakings hitherto attempted on the Zambezi. There are actually three of these, as I have previously stated, but as two are situated on the south bank I will endeavour to give some description of the first established, the Mozambique Sugar Company.

This association, which has been founded nearly twenty years, although Portuguese in its composition, is managed and directed chiefly by British *employés*, and occupies itself exclusively with the cultivation of sugar-cane, the manufacture of sugar, and the distillation of alcohol. Situated at Mopéa, on the left or northern bank of the river, about ninety miles from the coast, it had under cultivation in 1906 nearly 3,000 acres—but a small fraction of its enormous concession. Nearly half this acreage of cane was cut in that year, but in 1907 about 1,000 additional acres were planted out, whilst the cane harvested yielded rather more than 3,000 tons of sugar, valued at over £70,000.

The product is marketed in Lisbon, where, conveyed by Portuguese ships at a merely nominal freight, it is admitted on a payment of half the customs dues collected upon sugar produced by other countries, equal to a bounty of about £12 per ton—an interesting and instructive lesson in Portuguese Colonial Preference.

To obtain such a result as the foregoing—a by no means too satisfactory one, since it was hoped in 1907 to reach an output of something over 5,000 tons—several things are necessary: the expenditure of large sums in costly machinery,

buildings, and mills ; the engagement of skilled and, therefore, highly paid *employés* at the heads of the different departments, and lastly luck. We have seen what Africa does for cotton ; let it not be supposed that the sugar-cane is in any sense more immune to the devastation wrought by various pests. Locusts of course do the most damage, and after them a large black beetle covered with reddish brown spots ; but a nocturnal visitation of a school of hippopotami does more to desolate and ruin the undertaking than would result from the simultaneous arrival of several converging tempests.

In the winter season, that is to say between the months of May and November, the ground is cleared by means of powerful steam-ploughs—the time of year being thus selected owing to the temporary hardness of the soil produced by the absence of rain. A carefully devised system of canalisation is now carried out, as much for the purpose of quickly ridding the surface of the immense weights of water which fall during the earlier period of the rainy season, and which, unless its drainage were provided for, would quickly damage and kill the young plants, as for the purposes of irrigation. In a plantation of even moderate dimensions these canals may total up to many miles in length, and being constructed with a slight fall enable the seven or eight powerful twelve-inch centrifugal steam-pumps which, working together, pour a flood of 25,000 gallons of water per minute into the main canal, to furnish in times of drought a continuous supply of water which is forced through the system until it finally reaches the

ridges in which the sugar-cane is planted. The undertaking is thus rendered practically independent of rainfall, which in this part of the Zambezi is singularly variable.

But with all the advantages to be derived from these modern and up-to-date labour-saving machinery and appliances, the number of natives for which employment is furnished by the sugar plantations of the Zambezi is very large. More are of course required during the winter season for the clearing of ground and the work of irrigation than during the rains ; thus in the period from July to October 1906, the company we are considering employed per month an average of 1,443 adult natives, and paid out for wages and food for their workers from July 1, 1906, to June 30, 1907, the not inconsiderable sums respectively of £9,500 and £4,200.

The Mozambique Sugar Company possesses large and well-provided workshops in addition to their crushing mills and distillery. They grind their own native corn, and make their own lubricating oil, as well as having steam-saws and other local conveniences.

Wherever one goes in this part of Africa large quantities of the castor-oil plant (*Ricinus communis*) are visible, and I have often wondered why this rapid-growing weed—for that is all it is—has not been cultivated. The beans, which apparently it bears very freely hereabout, are, I believe, worth £8 to £9 per ton on the European markets, and scarcely any care or expense need be devoted to the plant itself.

We now turn to tobacco. This valuable product has been cultivated time out of mind by the natives of the Zambezi, and I have seen magnificent plantations growing with the greatest luxuriance not only in the immediate neighbourhood of that river at many points, but in such remote localities as the banks of the Luenya and Muira streams in the Barué region. It is precisely the same tobacco as that found in Nyasaland, and there manufactured into a rapidly increasing and lucrative export. In Zambezia I am unaware of any serious attempt to cultivate the tobacco plant, and yet I am fully convinced that properly undertaken it would prove a much more remunerative industry than some others which are now being half-heartedly prosecuted, and from which but little in the shape of result can ever probably be looked. I have smoked manufactured tobacco from Nyasaland plantations which seemed to me to exhibit but little difference from the best Navy Cut. The cigarettes exported from manufacturers in that country are most popular with smokers of light coloured tobacco; and although I have never had the courage to try a Nyasaland cigar, I am informed that the habit of smoking them is extremely difficult to throw off when once it has been acquired. What the British sphere can do to popularise these commodities, could, I feel sure, be achieved by the prazo-holders of the Zambezi, with less cost under the head of transport, and consequently more profit to the producer.

In the northern and north-western portions of the district of Zambezia considerable mineral wealth

has been found to exist, and there can be no doubt that some of the claims pegged, especially at Missale and Chifumbazi, have given most encouraging results. In all the prazoes of Maravia and Macanga traces of gold are found, and payable areas, both reef and alluvial, are not uncommon; thus in one of the localities to which my attention was recently drawn, and wherein considerable work had been done, two galleries had been cut, one of 6 metres, the other of 13 metres, the quartz reef showing visible gold. At the end of 1906 some 500 tons of this reef already exposed was believed to contain over 1 oz. of gold to the ton. Other mining propositions in the district have been shown to contain anything from 1 dwt. to 8 dwts., whilst, in very rare cases, as much as 15 oz. to the ton are said to have been proved. All these results were obtained within the district of Chifumbazi. In Missale, certain claims conceded to a small syndicate gave appreciable results early last year, when a small 3-stamp battery produced, before the usual accident which deprived the owners of its services, so much gold as to warrant the setting up of a larger apparatus. By this time, I understand, serious crushing has commenced; a 5-stamp battery with 1,000 lb. stamps, capable of crushing 25 tons of reef a day, having been set up. The task of getting this battery, with all its heavy machinery, transported from the river to the gold fields was one of immense difficulty, which will be the better realised when it is explained that the only means of conveyance consisted of the head of the indispensable native. But of this form of develop-



IN THE GOLD-MINING DISTRICTS: A ROUGH ASSAY.

ment the most that can be said is that it is only awakening, and the promoters have assuredly had to struggle not only with the difficulties inseparable from a country whose geological formation is uncertain, but with want of proper means of conveyance, a sickly climate, and, greatest handicap of all, insufficient capital to tide them over the doubts and fears of its initial stages.

In almost if not all the streams draining the districts mentioned, alluvial gold has been found in encouraging quantities, and many claims have been registered on the Luia, M'lavi, and Muaredzi. "Pay-dirt" from the bed of these streams passed through a sluice-box gives an average of 9 grains to the ton, and would seem, therefore, should there be sufficient water for the purpose, to offer inducements to the system known as "dredging."

In the district of Mino, in the same portion of Zambezia, a formation was discovered which yielded silver 1 oz. 3 dwts., copper 3·25 per cent., and lead 15·58 per cent. Uncertainty exists as to the extent of this system, but I have been informed that the discovery is regarded as one of importance.

In Macanga much attention has been devoted to prospecting, where, especially surrounding Machinga, extensive ancient workings have been brought to light; no exceptionally rich systems were, however, disclosed, although in the neighbouring stream-beds good alluvial deposits were observed. The rocks in this part of the country are of consistent ferruginous schistose-quartz formation.

What I look upon as a source of more assured

mineral wealth in this portion of Zambezia than all the gold which in the future will be wrested from nature's stronghold, is the copper which has been found to exist between the Lupata Gorge and the Coroabassa Rapids. Pandamacua is a name which has been given to an extensive rocky mountain chain situated within this area, and the name in the local dialect of chi-Nyungwe is said to mean "Fill yourself with copper." Be this as it may, very important discoveries of this valuable metal have been made in the mica-schistose formation presented. It occurs in several forms, those of cuprite, malachite, native copper, and several others. Ancient workings in two long lines show plainly that of old considerable development by rudimentary means was here carried out, and recent investigations have gone far to lend colour to the supposition that important deposits are here awaiting discovery. In one case a tunnel twenty-four yards in length was driven into an ancient working from which ore was obtained bearing native copper, malachite, and the formation known as "copper glance." Of this forty-five tons were shipped to London. I regret I am unable to remember the amount of copper which this ore produced, but it is within my recollection that the figures submitted to me at the Mines Department at Tete proved it to be phenomenally rich. Much work of a prospecting character undertaken by private individuals tends to show that copper is, without doubt, very extensively deposited hereabout, and the chief advantage of the discovery consists in the fact that the fields are only about two miles from

the Zambezi, which gives the heavy ore inexpensive water transport to the hold of the ocean steamer.

There exist, near to Tete, extensive deposits of coal, and samples shown to me by his Excellency the Governor were of a singularly promising quality. Obtained from near the surface, it was naturally somewhat hard and shaley, but, in spite of that, burned, I am informed, sufficiently well to indicate that from a greater depth its quality would improve.

Here we have an important commodity, which in its development would go far to facilitate existing means of transport. The chief fuel, used alike in the furnaces of the river steamers and the boiler houses of the sugar companies, is wood ; a constant and growing consumption for this purpose having been going on for more than twenty years—and in the absence of a satisfactory substitute, will doubtless continue for twenty more. It will, therefore, be understood that the destruction of the forest trees, with its inevitable consequent restriction of rainfall, is a matter of the deepest import, and it is hoped in many quarters that means may be found to turn the Zambezi coal fields to account, constituting as they do so valuable a source of general convenience.

With all its great agricultural and mineral wealth, however ; with all the opportunities which it offers for the employment of capital, there is one grave fault which must be corrected before ever this great African waterway can come to be considered as a river of importance. That fault lies in its shallowness. The great stream which might

lend such vast assistance to the prosecution of rapid internal development, is nothing more during the greater part of the year than a troublesome hindrance. As I have stated in a previous chapter, this fault is far from incurable. Its remedy consists in the adoption of means whose cost, compared with the construction of the railroad which must soon alternatively become necessary, is inconsiderable.

The Zambezi, in a word, must be dredged.

I have pointed out that the sand-banks, which constitute the chief obstacles to navigation, are not continuous; that where one of these bars a channel, its extent is in nearly every case inconsiderable. The task of clearing a way wide enough and deep enough to afford passage to navigation during the whole of the dry season would, I feel convinced, be easily performed by one, or, at the outside, two dredgers of moderate size and power. The Zambezi thenceforward, its permanent channels carefully marked and charted, its sand-banks pierced by passages of sufficient depth, and an intelligible system of leading marks set up, should enable vessels to navigate its waters by night as well as by day. Thus, by means of a Kitson or other acetylene search-light mounted forward, the tiresome delays involved by making fast to the bank at nightfall, as at present, would be done away with, and the time occupied on the river journey reduced by at least one half, with a consequent proportionate reduction in the cost of freight and conveyance.

In the foregoing passages of this chapter we have caught an imperfect glimpse of the region of

the prazoes, and formed, perhaps, an estimate of what is being done within their borders, all too little, some will say, in view of the immensity of their value, and the responsibilities which their occupants undertake; but there is one point of which we should not lose sight in criticising the comparatively insignificant measure of productiveness they have hitherto attained to. That is the consideration of native labour. In a reliable statistical table which lies before me as I write, the entire native population of fifty prazoes, whose area would probably somewhat exceed that of England and Wales, is returned at 249,000, giving an average per prazo of some 4,980 souls; but so unequally are these divided that, according to the list mentioned, it is noticeable, whilst some of the larger areas possess as many as 80,000 natives, others can lay claim in some cases to no more than forty or fifty. We therefore see at a glance the unfortunate position thereby created. It is this. So long as the remote prazo-holder is satisfied with the amount of income he derives from the proportion of the native hut-tax which he is allowed to retain, and makes no attempt to employ the people residing upon his concession, an assured income is his; but from the moment that he insists upon utilising their labour, in no matter what branch of industry or agriculture, his tax-payers immediately cast about for a prazo where life flows more peacefully, and in a short time the man of action finds his native locations deserted, with the inevitable consequence that his revenues are proportionately reduced. It is clear, therefore, that the present

generation of the remoter prazo-proprietors, profiting by the bitter experience of those who have gone before, seek first of all to attract as large a native population as possible by dint of indulgent treatment, and by making it quite understood that labour will not be required of them to any excessive degree. This once done, and the advantages of residence within his borders sufficiently made public, the happy proprietor will assuredly see his undeveloped prazo densely populated, and his coffers overflowing with easily collected hut-taxes. Of course, in the prazoes near the sea, where important work has, as we have seen, been carried out, large populations rule in spite of the extensive plantations undertaken; but it should be remembered that these are almost exclusively coconut plantations, and that, therefore, the task of planting once performed, but little care and labour suffice to maintain the groves in a state of comparative order. Moreover, the conditions obtaining upon the coast but little resemble those subsisting in the far interior. Led by men of energy, men of initiative, the coast negro to some extent has begun to realise the dignity and necessity of labour. He has created needs for himself which only the fruits of his toil can satisfy. To those pioneers of prazofarming who in the past were content to sit still and enrich themselves by the sole means of the collection of taxes, has succeeded another generation possessed of capital and the knowledge of how to employ it. To the present workers, as a whole, the mere collection of the native taxes without other sources of revenue would prove insufficient to pay

them interest worthy of consideration, and, therefore, they are constrained to carry out agricultural propositions which are rapidly transforming the old-time prazoes, with their appalling abuses and unprintable excesses, into centres of production which will one day, however slowly, demonstrate to home markets that this portion of Africa is a producing area of no mean order.

CHAPTER VI

THE REGION OF THE BARUÉ

ALTHOUGH not strictly speaking within the district of Zambezia, the almost adjoining region of the Barué (pronounced "barway") is one which, by reason of the little which is known of it, may claim our attention through the space of a chapter.

Situated between the Zambezi and the borders of Mashonaland, and extending from the River Luenya in the west to the limits of the Mozambique Company's territory, this beautiful district has for many years been the scene of almost incessant bickerings between the Portuguese authorities and the native occupants. From the earliest times it has been ruled by powerful and influential chieftains bearing the title of the Makombé, a designation stated to have been one of those which belonged to the Monomotapa of old. It is almost certain, indeed, that the Barué was at one time of its history a portion of this ancient empire, since, in the sixteenth century, Diogo d'Alcaçova, writing to the first King Manoel, said: "The king who reigns here (Barué) is the son of the Makombé Monomotapa." The Friar João dos Santos, moreover, confirms this supposition, and, in his outline

of the divisions of Monomotapa's kingdom, clearly indicates one a portion of which is identifiable with the Barué of the present day.

In the constant dissensions and turmoils which took place on the Zambezi, even as late as the early eighties of the last century, this country, though but little removed from the scene of their preoccupations of that period, had not apparently to any great extent attracted the attention of the Portuguese. It follows, therefore, that the Makombé had not up to that time found his European neighbours a source of any serious embarrassment to him; he appears, indeed, to have almost wholly escaped their attention. But twenty years previously the unfortunate ruler of the period had had another trial to contend against. This was the adventurer Gouveia—a half-cast Goanese, whose name for many years was a terror to the whole of the wide region of which he was the undisputed ruler, stretching from the Zambezi to the highlands of Manica, and from the Cheringoma Range westward to the present Rhodesian border. This man, Manoel Antonio de Sousa by name, established himself in Gorongoza in 1868 or 1869, and there built a strong *aringa*, or stockade, wherein he gathered together a few people armed to withstand the attacks of the Landins or Vatuas, who, as we have seen, were still in the habit of collecting tribute even from the settlement of Sena itself. Several times Gouveia (as the natives came in time to call him) inflicted heavy defeats on these invaders, and by this means so imposed his influence upon the surrounding tribes as to elevate him-

self in a comparatively short time to the unquestioned position of lord of Gorongoza and much of the territory to the eastward. But Manoel Antonio de Sousa was an ambitious man, and possessed of an intelligence, and of an ability to conceive and execute, wholly phenomenal in a member of his usually indolent, emasculated race. No sooner, therefore, did he feel his position in Gorongoza secure, than he at once commenced to develop a scheme for the subjugation and absorption of the Barué also. With this end in view, he negotiated a marriage with the *Nyani** Adriana, daughter of the Makombé of that period, and succeeded in purchasing at the same time the interest of certain of the potentate's principal headmen, who secretly covenanted on all occasions to champion his cause. Very shortly afterwards a caravan was sent out from the adventurer's *aringa* at Gorongoza, theoretically to convey ivory to Tete, but with instructions to lose no opportunity of allowing itself to be captured if any of the Makombé's people displayed the least disposition to take possession of it. It was naturally promptly looted, and Gouveia lost no time in taking advantage of the circumstance for the furtherance of his own purposes. So strong were the representations he made, that the aged Makombé, urged thereto by Gouveia's friendly headmen, was at length persuaded to abdicate in the half-caste's favour; despatched an embassy to him bearing a tusk of

* The title *Nyani* is one applied originally to the daughters of chiefs, but has now come to be applied to half-caste women, and to the wives of natives in superior positions.

ivory filled with earth as a sign of submission, and requested that he would at once take over the reins of the ruler's waning authority. It so happened that about this time some of the tribes of the Barué under a chieftain named Makanga revolted. Gouveia, therefore, without delay, collected the Makombé's forces and marched against them. In the encounter which ensued Makanga was killed and his rebellious hordes dispersed. These operations had the effect of greatly strengthening the Goanese adventurer's position, and he proceeded to consolidate it by means which display a very considerable amount of prudence and foresight. Selecting five important strategical sites, he immediately constructed *aringas* thereon; and with a view to minimising the probability of treachery by those placed in charge, he took the precaution of marrying a wife each time that he established an *aringa*. The lady thus honoured was placed in supreme command of the fortification, and, as his direct representative, was naturally a person to whom the utmost consideration was accorded. With such a *chatelaine* controlling it, no possibility of deception could arise, and, more important still, Gouveia was assured of information of the most reliable character on all matters connected with the small garrison and the doings of its component members.

By these means the far-seeing half-caste completely dominated the Barué country, and received almost daily reports from the *nyanis* in charge of his various centres. His activity was amazing, and his wealth and influence increased to such a degree that south of the Zambezi he was practically the

only power in the land. So impressed became the Portuguese Government with the necessity of ensuring his benevolent regard, that he was created Capitão-mór of the whole of the vast area he himself had subjugated, and received the commission of a colonel in the Portuguese army. There never reigned a king possessed of more unquestioned power. He made war, and led his usually victorious armies in person. He concluded peace, and himself made and ratified the conditions of the treaty.

In this world, however, there is an unvarying rule which after a longer or shorter period brings everything to an end. In 1890 this Goanese freebooter, who, as we have seen, possessed all the attributes of an absolute monarch, in the course of one of his raids, was suddenly defeated and taken prisoner, whereupon his captains, judging it unlikely that he would be allowed to escape alive, promptly divided his *nyanis* and other appropriable property among them, whilst the downtrodden descendants of the last Makombé commenced to take measures to lay claim to the throne. One of these, Kanga (the guinea-fowl) by name, who had for many years been hiding in Manica, returned, and through the treachery of one of the guards succeeded in murdering the *Nyani* Madziamanga at Masseguire and possessing himself of the greater part of Gouveia's arms and ammunition there deposited. He was soon joined by a considerable party, and attacked the remaining *aringas*, and these, either through want of ammunition or disheartened by the capture of the redoubtable Goanese, fell one by one.

In the meantime, the *Nyani* Adriana, who

appears to have been singularly devoted to her large-hearted, much-married spouse, succeeded in setting him free, whereupon Gouveia fled northward to the Zambezi. As the news of his escape spread abroad, many of his old captains with their people came in to "catch his leg," as it is termed; in other words, to return to their allegiance and sue for pardon. Some he forgave, but others, it is said, he killed with his own hand.

He now gathered together as strong a force as possible for the purpose of attacking the rebels, who were entrenched in an *aringa* at Inyangone. Arrived there, however, instead of closely investing the stockade by night, as was his usual custom, he allowed the well-armed occupants to attack him as he approached it by day, with the result that his men were hopelessly defeated, and he himself was wounded in the encounter. He endeavoured to escape by hiding in the high grass, but was discovered and killed by a small boy, who would not capture him, dreading lest his formidable victim should cast a spell of witchcraft upon him.

From this time forward the Barué returned to the rule of a Makombé, the lawful heir of the chieftain whose position had been usurped by Gouveia, and thereafter Portuguese influence ceased until, in 1902, Captain João de Azevedo Coutinho broke his power and dispersed his people in a well-organised and brilliantly executed expedition, which will doubtless remove from the tribes of that country the smallest further inclination to assert their independence as they have so constantly done in the past.

Passing through the Barué in 1907 from Tete to the Pungwe River, I was enabled to make some notes upon it, and form some impressions of a region in which I had for some years been greatly interested.

Properly speaking, it forms the water-parting between the Zambezi on the one hand, and the Pungwe on the other, and consists of an elevated, rocky, upland plain, highest at its north-western end, and sloping gradually towards Gorongosa in the south-east. It was at one time, doubtless, very densely peopled, but its population, driven into British territory by Coutinho in 1902, has not altogether returned; indeed, I consider it extremely improbable that in its former density it ever will.

The upper expanse of country points to volcanic origin, some of the mighty masses of granite, hundreds of feet high, seeming to indicate that they have been exposed in the early history of the world as the result of terrific upheavals of nature. Some of these masses rise to a considerable height above the plateau, as in the case of M'handá, Chitendéri, and Zemelan'gombé, and display every variety of astonishing shape and angle. Near Mungari, the residence of the courteous Capitão-mór Captain José Rodrigues Lage, to whose energetic policy this entire region owes so much, a most singularly shaped peak rises. This monster, whose name M'sunga means, I am told, a cake of tobacco, rises in the form of a perfect cone for fully 900 feet, and upon the apex of the cone an immense block of granite, shaped exactly like an afternoon

tea-cake, except that its top appears perfectly flat and has a diameter of about two miles, has been so accurately poised that at all the points from which I viewed it the mountain presented the same regular form and appearance. I was further informed that nobody had ever been to the top of M'sunga, a statement which did not surprise me in the least, as from the moment the cone-shaped body of mountain is ascended there appears to be no means of scaling the rounded, outward-protruding, lower edge of the crowning "tea-cake"; but there is quite a gruesome story connected with M'sunga which may account for the superstitious Barué people having made no serious attempt to climb it. This is to the effect that many years ago, whilst Shipapata was Makombé, there lived at Mungari, then a royal borough, so to speak, a dreadful old woman named Dzango. For years she had been suspected of witchcraft, and there were few who did not believe she changed herself into various animal shapes and devoured the flesh of the newly buried dead. At length one of Shipapata's wives, quite a young woman, and one to whom he was much attached, was mysteriously taken ill and died, and the mutterings against old Dzango increased in volume. Several days after the burial, a chance passer-by observed to his horror that the dead woman's grave had been desecrated, and lost no time in fleeing to the village and spreading the ghastly news. This was conclusive. Here at last was clear evidence of witchcraft, and who in Mungari wielded the dread power but old Dzango, at whose door so much misfortune had in the past

been laid? Whilst the uneasy villagers discussed excitedly the disquieting news, and speculated as to who would be the next victim to figure at Dzango's unspeakable feasts, one Bofana, who had been hunting round M'sunga, came in carrying a small bundle, which on being opened displayed to the dismayed spectators the head of the missing corpse. His story was that, sitting down to rest under the summit of M'sunga, he had seen something fall from the top, as though blown over by a gust of wind, and picking it up he found to his horror that it was the head of Shipapata's favourite wife; but though to some extent yielding to the forces of nature, did they see the marvel of the eyes? Then to their amazement the people saw that the eyes still lived, and seemed ceaselessly to search among them for one who was not present. Then they shouted, "It is the witch she seeks; bring Dzango." The old woman was speedily found and dragged to the spot. The instant she appeared the corpse's eyes assumed such a terrific expression of menacing accusation that Dzango then and there fell on her knees and begged for mercy. She confessed that for years she had been an eater of human flesh, and had exhumed the body of Shipapata's wife, whom, owing to an uncontrollable longing to eat her, she had killed by witchcraft. The body was taken by her in two pieces to the top of M'sunga by a road she only knew, and there devoured. So overwrought were the horrified villagers by these appalling disclosures that Dzango was at once taken forth and put to death by being placed in the path of a procession

of black warrior ants, which ate her alive on the outskirts of the village.

On the south-east side of the Barué, low down towards the western foothills of Gorongoza mountain, and where it is watered by a number of streams which fall into the Pungwe River, the country is fertile, thickly populated, and rich in native crops. It must be, moreover, extraordinarily healthy, as there is here no marsh land, properly speaking, or stagnant water to propagate the malarial mosquito. The whole region is covered with forest, varying in density and luxuriance of growth with the elevation, and consequent poverty or richness of soil. Thus on the plateau, and in the higher altitudes, the soil, which is nothing more than disintegrated granite *débris*, the weathering through the ages of the vast rocks which here abound held together by a modicum of organic matter, produces nothing more impressive than stunted acacias, small baobabs, clumps of euphorbias and feathery bamboos, with an undergrowth of dwarf iron-wood and *proteæ*; whilst down on the banks of the low-lying stream-beds some few forest trees of great size and undoubted value may be noted.

From Mungari, for twenty or thirty miles, the Barué is possessed of only a few isolated mountainous features such as M'sunga and one or two unimportant hills. The forest, however, opposes a tiresome limit to one's range of vision, except on the summit of some elevated ridge or shoulder; but Inyangone once passed, and the bold rocky escarpment of Sajawé reached, the view

across the wide plain cut by Zemelan'gombé on the one hand, and quaintly shaped Gonda on the other, is so superb that even my usually impassive native escort could not behold it unmoved. Zemelan'gombé is without question the most imposing, as its situation is the most beautiful, of the many isolated mountains of this interesting region. At its foot lies, to the northward, a valley so perfectly lovely as almost to baffle description, so completely does it realise one's preconceived ideas of an ideal "land of the mountain and the flood." And not brusquely, not harshly. The majestic proportions of the mighty mountainous mass are decently clothed with a deliciously appropriate dress of suave, undulating greenery, the angles of granite only showing where they break through the rounded coverings of the massive escarpment and crown the harmonious whole with an appropriate, glittering, sunlit diadem. At the foot of the huge upheaval, a placid, silvery riband of water flows rapidly northward to join the main stream of the Zambezi on its way to the sea. In some places this crystal-clear watercourse rushes over a rocky bed down between high, red banks, through which, in the flight of the ages, it has pierced a well-worn furrow. Farther on it bends itself gracefully over a lip of smooth-worn rock, and plunges, jade-green at the summit to pinkish white at the base, down some steep descent, and foams through the rock-filled basin below, throwing up a continuous crystal spray to irrigate the masses of ferns and water plants which cling to the fissures and cracks in the granite of the skirting boulders. On the



THE LUENYA RIVER OF THE BARUÉ.

very summit of this same watershed I crossed one stream—I believe a branch of the Muira River—at a spot which was so exquisite in its wild beauty that for several hours I was unable to tear myself away, and must accord it a separate description.

I stepped down into the rocky bed of a stream perhaps twenty or thirty yards wide. At that time, the height of the dry season, the water filtered down the channels which it had worn in the granite floor ; and you could walk along it stepping over the little runnels as they crossed your path. Every now and then a curious stony cell would be passed several feet in depth, full to the brim of water so brilliantly clear that at certain angles the rocky tank would have appeared empty save for the tiny fish which appeared, against the snowy sand of the bottom, to be almost suspended in a void. Continuing on, a dull increasing roar became more and more noticeable, and at length we reached a spot where the stream gathered itself together and went foaming over such a ledge as I have just described, but only to be caught a few feet lower down by a projecting boulder, and, as it were, turn itself completely over in its downward leap. The fall, some forty feet deep, terminated in an almost perfectly circular basin probably thirty yards across, surrounded for two-thirds of its diameter by a projecting lip of verdant marsh, from which a fringe of falling water trickled over like countless strings of diamonds on to a shelving bank extending to the water's edge, but hidden under one unbroken covering of tenderest green maidenhair-fern. The pool itself was surrounded by magnifi-

cent teak trees, so venerable as almost to meet overhead, in which green parrots and a pair of quaint hornbills sat tranquilly regarding us. The beauty of that mountain cascade was one so curiously apart, so entirely incomparable with anything I had ever seen in the African highlands, that I fruitlessly wasted every film in my camera in the chastened light, which was all too dim for the purpose, in my efforts to obtain a picture.

Unhappily the Barué is not well watered, and only the lower portions of the great district can be said to promise anything in the shape of agricultural importance. At the present time its principal—indeed I believe I am right in saying its only—export consists of beeswax, of which the output must be very considerable. Almost all over the country you cannot go many miles without seeing suspended in the trees the native beehive, which consists of a hollow cylinder, the outer bark of a certain tree which is taken skilfully off when it has reached a diameter of about eighteen inches, and then made into a hollow tube three or four feet long. This is smeared inside with the juice of the sugar-cane, and attracts the wild bees, which then come and deposit their honeycombs; and as these insects are exceedingly numerous in all parts of the country, it must naturally follow that their wax is plentiful.

The summits of some of the mountains, notably Zemelan'gombé, M'handá, and some others, possess extensive plateau-country, where cool weather rules the whole year round, and frosts in the winter are not infrequent. I was informed by an

old headman named M'passo, that when he was a boy it was the custom, on an alarm being given of the approach of the Vatuas, for all the people to take refuge on the former, where they would often remain for weeks at a time as a result of these visitations. There is on this plateau, as on several others, an ancient burial ground, and perhaps on this account, since the discontinuance of Vatuva alarms, nobody has ascended the mountain unless some of his or her ancestors or influential connections were buried there, and then only on such an occasion as that of marriage or some other of vital import, when, accompanied by an old man who M'passo did not wish to name to me, but I suspect to have been some villainous witch-doctor, and who is the only remaining individual to show the way up, the two would ascend for the purpose of propitiating the spirits of the dead, and with a view to obtaining a favourable augury of the success or otherwise of the forthcoming event.

There is scarcely any open grass-land in the almost unbroken forest, which one would suppose would attract a greater rainfall than apparently this district receives. In the south-eastern portions, one crosses here and there inconsiderable "Tandues," or expanses of coarse grass-land, covered with that useless growth the *Stipa*, which reaches a height of nine or ten feet, and showers barbed seeds upon you when its seed-vessels ripen.

There are in the Barué two military posts, both established since the 1902 campaign; that of Mungari already referred to, and that of Katandikas near the Rhodesian frontier which I have not

visited. The Mungari post is a well-constructed quadrilateral stockade of considerable strength, surrounded by a *glacis* and ditch of sufficient width and depth, and mounting two Hotchkiss quick-firing guns. It contains quarters for the native troops, with accommodation for the officers and non-commissioned officers. There are, in addition, stabling and quartermaster's stores. Surrounding the small fortress is a wide stretch of well-kept, open ground, and, five or six hundred yards away, the nicely arranged, well-built residence of the Capitão-mór, and the shops of the small "banyan" trading community. Through Mungari runs the main road from Tete to Macequece (pronounced Massikess) on the Rhodesian frontier, a week-long journey, with a good road and plenty of water all the way. This is really the only road through the Barué, if one except the native-made paths which my expedition followed when I visited the district in 1907. It is, however, the middle portion of this fine, neglected area which claims the greatest attention. Here the rainfall is heaviest, and the wide district of which this elevated plateau land consists becomes, therefore, a distributing centre for such slight irrigation as the low-lying expanses receive. These latter retain the water through the winter months in the sandy stream beds, where the precious fluid is often only hidden from view by a few inches of moist sand. Marshes, of course, there are none, and wells are not abundant. Personally, judging from the appearances which presented themselves, I should be inclined to estimate the average rainfall at about 40 inches,

rising to 60 inches in very wet seasons. There are also indications that much heavier rains have fallen in the far distant past, but it would be hard to account for this present decreased volume by anything for which man may be held responsible. In portions of Central Africa with which I am familiar, the rainfall has, without question, greatly decreased by reason of the wholesale destruction of the forests which attracted it. The natives cut down the trees over a considerable area, and, as soon as the trunks are sufficiently dry for the purpose, set fire to them, the resulting piles of snowy ashes going far to increase the richness of the soil. After having gathered in one or two crops, the clearing is regarded as exhausted, and a move is made to another locality where again the forest is sacrificed. I consider that this process of consistent denudation which has been going on through the ages is responsible for many an unproductive, arid waste, for once destroyed, the greater forest growths have disappeared for ever ; they are replaced by the smaller stunted trees which are of no value as attractors of rain. This, however, cannot be said of the higher elevations of the Barué, which are still covered with an exuberant growth of forest. The trees, it is true, are not, as a whole, very impressive in point of size, but this is accounted for, as I have previously pointed out, by the phenomenal unproductiveness of the stone dust which here does duty for soil.

The geological formation is not unlike that of the region of Manica, of the Shiré Highlands, and of various other portions of the same volcanic plateau

to which so many thousands of square miles of the Angoni country belong. It is one of course which has been but little explored, either from the prospector's or any other point of view. The most prominent feature consists of constantly occurring masses of granite rocks traversed by quartz reefs. These appear not only in the form of isolated mountainous masses, but crop out of the soil like a bare stone floor for areas many acres in extent. Then again, surrounding the mountain bases, are strewn rounded boulders from two or three to many thousands of tons in weight. In some of these felspar occurs porphyritically, exhibiting a singular system of curious veins probably caused, as it has been suggested to me, by the conditions in which they were originally cooled. The varieties of granite most commonly met with contain clear grains of quartz without cleavage, also orthoclase and brown and black mica. Aplite shows itself in the form of small veins, and appears to consist of orthoclase and quartz without additional accessory minerals. The colour is of a dull yellow, the veins coarse-grained, compact, and much stained, perhaps by solutions of iron. Tourmaline granite is extremely common, as is shorl rock, whilst, in some of the stony masses which I examined, magnetite occurs with small visible garnets, as also large masses of what has been described to me as pegmatite. Here, however, the quartz particles are embedded in the darker felspar and betray considerable cleavages. In some of the outcrop surrounding Ngaru, hornblende is met with, whilst some of the porphyrites are probably not dissimilar



SOME TYPICAL GRANITE FORMATIONS.

from those which are so characteristic of certain portions of the Manica gold mines. These are, for the most part, of a reddish brown, and inclined to be amorphous.

In some of the stream beds the curious formation known as "pudding-stone" is found. This singular type of rock is said to have been formed by the fluid granite moulding itself in the cooling process upon fragments of dark felspar.

Between the Muira River and Inyangone, some geological variations occur, isolated patches of hornblende, schist, and gneiss presenting themselves, whilst, as stated elsewhere, the general rocky system becomes very rugged, especially to the northward of the village of Nkornuam'penembe. I observed on passing through this district in 1907, considerable evidence of old workings, and was informed that nearly all the streams contain more or less gold dust in their alluvium. One small stream, I remember, cut through several dykes of aplite as well as of ophitic diabase. More basic dykes appear in this part of the Barué than I observed on any other portion of my journey. From Macorça, for ten or fifteen miles to the southward, the hills still, generally speaking, preserve their granite formation, but the surrounding region from which they rise might be correctly described, I think, as consisting to some extent of schists crossed by diabase. Thence to the Vunduzi River a slight change takes place in the general aspect. Thus in the stream-beds bands of quartzite appear, striped with iron oxides; argillaceous chlorite, talc, and mica schists are observable, whilst many

of the hillocks are of gneiss formation. The group of conspicuous rocky hills surrounding Nyasuma and Maevi are extremely rugged, terminating in a range of glistening white gneiss grits. These present a most fascinating appearance, many of the rocks, doubtless in process of upheaval, having been tilted out of their positions and projected into a series of curves at angles of fully 60° . Bold anticlinal outlines are presented by others, whilst anon one is confronted by the positions of other rocks for which it were idle indeed to attempt to account.

That the greater portion of the Barué, partaking of the general characteristics exhibited by surrounding areas, is mineralised in greater or lesser degree does not, to my mind, admit of doubt. Unfortunately its comparative inaccessibility renders the task of the prospector more difficult than it would be in adjoining territories, whilst the serious want of water in some of the districts would naturally constitute a disadvantage which any future mining industry would find it extremely difficult to surmount. Still the singularly liberal character of the mining regulations, of which a digest is appended to this chapter, gives one reason to hope that means may be found to exploit those parts of the district which hold out the greatest prospect of future importance.

Taken as a whole, the extensive and beautiful region we are considering is one in which, if we except the aridity of the central and north-western portions, it can be said that there are no really harsh or desert-like expanses. It is true, as I have

pointed out, that the dense forest is almost entirely absent, if by such a term we seek to describe large tracts covered by those immense tropical trees which other parts of Africa possess in such amazing quantity and variety. These only exist in unimportant numbers in the lower, warmer, and better-watered localities; but in spite of this I should be inclined to describe it, having regard to its position and elevation, as a well-forested region, and one possessed of many beauties which are all its own. Foremost among these are the mighty granite upheavals. Any adequate description of the astonishing shapes these giants appear in would require far more space than I can devote to the subject. Some take the form of an inverted basin, or, more accurately still, of an almost perfect hemisphere, so accurately rounded that in the far distance they look like mighty cannon balls half sunk where they have fallen. Others again thrust a vast monolith of solid granite—one mighty unbroken whole—through the surface of the ground to a height of eight hundred or a thousand feet, and appear to be perpetually surveying the startled plain below with an air of mild surprise.

These immense, forested, mountainous uplands often seem to me to furnish so many vast and striking instances of the inconspicuousness of the presence of the human race in the great African continent; of the puny, inconsiderable character of the labour which man has devoted to the task of winning for the service of his kind the tree-clad fallow immensity which nature surrounds with so many almost insurmountable prohibitions. I dare

say there will be many among my readers who will say, "Oh, but surely you are losing sight of South Africa, with its teeming millions of active workers, its thousand industries and vast cultivated areas." But indeed I do not forget these things, any more than I forget how small a portion of the great continent the corner we have in our mind's eye when we speak of South Africa really is. For over two centuries Europeans have been in South Africa; they have fought for the country and established themselves in cities; they have dug and delved and pecked and blasted for the gold and precious stones it contains; they have set up governments and buildings which they have adorned and gilded and frescoed—some of the former remain, of course, and some are already well-nigh forgotten; but, when we come to travel through South Africa, and leave the outskirts of those populous centres where greed and rascality wear an aspect which is almost a complete disguise, what do we see? But little to point out with exultation, I fear, as the outcome of the sacrifice of so much blood and treasure and principle and toil. If, therefore, we find in the southern portion of the country so small a result, so inconspicuous an evidence of our efforts to establish an occupancy leaving some outward indication of its efficacy on the country as a whole, what shall be said of those remoter and vaster regions to the northward, which are only now becoming dimly and perhaps impatiently conscious of the commencement of European intrusion? Their slumber has been a long one, and their awakening is not yet—perhaps,



A BAOBAB WITH VIEW OF ZAMBEZI.

due to the conditions of climate, their inclusion among the centres wherein Europeans may make a permanent home may be never wholly possible; and, therefore, they will remain throughout the centuries abiding examples of our puny impotence in the face of tropical Africa's impassable restrictions.

There is one thing regarding which the Barué has my whole-hearted felicitations. From the moment I entered its wide expanse to that at which I left it, I never once heard the hateful hum of the misbegotten mosquito, that veritable curse of almost every portion of Central and South Central Africa. It is, I suppose, too high, and there is scarcely any surface water in which this ill-devised creature can propagate its devilish species.

Since the military operations which, in 1902, swept the bulk of the native population across the border into South-Eastern Rhodesia, this vast district has been administered so far as possible by military authorities. It was at one time proposed that the Mozambique Company should be permitted to undertake its governance, but difficulties presented themselves which that body did not see its way to surmount. Still, even with the slender resources placed at his disposal, Captain Lage, the Capitão-mór of the Barué, has laboured devotedly to bring the district into line with adjoining areas, and the roads which now render travelling easy and pleasant, and even some of the bridges, are quite equal, and in some cases superior, to those found in the adjoining Mozambique Company's

territory; and I have little doubt that when the Barué is systematically prospected, an adequate Land Department established, and administration proceeds on somewhat broader lines than at present, we shall hear more of this region, in which there are, I consider, infinite possibilities of most important future development.

Of course the paramount consideration in this development is the preservation of the native as its principal producing element, and, therefore, the question of native rights is one of the utmost importance. Doubtless in the present aspect of the country, this difficulty is minimised by the smallness of the native population, which probably does not exceed 80,000 souls; but it may be, as time goes on, many of the families which fled from Coutinho's columns will return to their old haunts, as they find peace and order continuing unbroken there.

Throughout Portuguese East Africa there is nothing resembling our system of native reserves. The negro comes and goes at will, and but little heed is paid to the localities he selects for his native villages. Of course, as I have pointed out elsewhere in these pages, the result of this is to gradually deforest the more fertile regions, and, by degrees, to restrict the (at present) sufficient if decreasing annual rainfalls. In spite of this tendency, however, which would doubtless be exceedingly difficult to check, there can be no doubt that for many generations to come these periodical migrations are not destined to be fraught with much inconvenience, so vast are the expanses

still untouched in South Central Africa. No hostile feelings can ever again arise, I should conceive, from questions of the sufficiency of land. Of this there is much more than enough for both white and black, and assuredly the tribes of Zambezia as a whole, to say nothing of the Barué and adjoining areas, are not sufficiently numerous to experience either inconvenience or resentment from the all too gradually flowing tide of European immigration which is so sluggishly rolling through this little-known portion of the country. What is really required, both in our own colonies and in the sphere of which I am treating, is ability to organise a coherent system capable of retaining the native in the country and at the same time of increasing his usefulness as an essential agent of our civilisation.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER VI

The following is a convenient digest of the Mining Regulations in force in the Region of the Barué:

Area of Claims.—(1) For precious stones, a square of 10 metres each side. (2) For precious metals, a square of 100 metres per side. (3) For dredging, a rectangle of a maximum area of 2,500 hectares, no side to exceed 5,000 metres. (4) For all other mineral deposits, a rectangle not exceeding 100 hectares.

Cost of an ordinary mining licence is 5,000 reis (£1), and for a special mining licence 50,000 reis (£10).

With an ordinary licence the prospector can peg (*a*) precious stones, 10 claims; (*b*) precious metals, 10 claims; (*c*) any other class of mineral, 1 claim.

With a special licence, however, of the claims (*a*) and (*b*) 500 may be pegged, 1 dredging claim, and (or) 5 claims of any other class of mineral.

Discoverers' claims, until sold, and coal and iron mines, are exempt from taxes, which are of two kinds, fixed and proportional ; but all mines are free of the latter during the first two years.

The fixed tax is 500 reis (2*s.*) per hectare for claims other than those for precious metals and stones ; 2,500 reis (10*s.*) per hectare for claims of precious stones, and 100,000 reis (£20) for dredging claims.

The proportional tax is one of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on concessions other than those for precious stones or metals, and 2 per cent. on the latter assessed on their value at the mine's mouth.

Machinery and mining implements pay a nominal duty of 1 per 1,000 ad valorem.

CHAPTER VII

ZAMBEZIAN FLORA

IN dealing with the wide subject of the flora of so extensive a region, it should perhaps be stated at once that although tropical, striking, and beautiful to a degree, it nevertheless falls far short of the wonders and splendours whose fame has reached us from the moist heated valley of the Amazon, or indeed from such rainy regions as those traversed by the muddy waters of the Congo or Niger. Each has doubtless its own botanical beauties and floral phenomena, and even if the Zambezi valley cannot compete with those more favoured localities, still there are sufficient examples of a world of unusual varieties to claim our attention and to awaken our admiration.

It seems, I must confess, a task of no small difficulty to compress into the limits of a few book pages any adequate idea of the immense number of families here represented, when assuredly a whole volume were all too small for the purpose; and that difficulty is vastly increased when account is taken of the smallness of the attraction or interest contained in the barbaric clumsiness of the terrible scientific names brutally conferred upon the most

beautiful and delicate section of the whole wide field of natural science. Conceive if you can the class of mind which would endow a pretty delicate creeper with such a name as *Tryphostemma sandersoni*, or that graceful if somewhat common form among the Ficoideæ the *Mesembryanthemum edule*. An especially unhappy fate in the hereafter should be reserved for the perpetrators of wrongs such as these, and we cannot help feeling a natural regret that we shall not have an opportunity of witnessing the punishment which must naturally overtake them. *Mesembryanthemum*! Why, it is like handling some rare butterfly with the kitchen tongs.

Africa has, so far as its southern and south central portions are concerned, an unfortunate and wholly unjust reputation. People who have visited these parts of the continent will tell you that there are no sweet-smelling flowers, or song birds, or rivers with water in them. These libels, however, are circulated without malice, and remind one of the description given by some wanderer of imperfect perception who, being interrogated as to what had impressed him most on his travels through South Africa, is reported to have replied that the rivers contained no water, the birds never sang, the flowers were scentless, and the name of every dog was "Voetsac,"* but that when you called him he ran away. The person who gave the foregoing as the fruit of his intelligent observations must have been one of the many who travel during the depth of the African winter season, and therefore naturally

* Voetsac, meaning "Get out," "Clear out."

see nothing of the beautiful exuberant wealth of colour with which the hot breath of spring and the short fierce deluges of the early rains clothe the entire face of the country. Nobody travels on the Zambezi after September if he can possibly avoid doing so. By the end of October the heat is appalling throughout the entire region, but the individual who finds himself capable of sustaining its climatic rigours reaps a rich reward in the extraordinary beauties which the country holds out to him.

Every glade has now its attraction, and some an infinite variety of them. Imagine, then, a forest opening, the sky a deep Mediterranean blue, and the strong sunlight turning the shimmering, newly born greenery of the tree tops into a tender, semi-transparent, fairy-like canopy, the bushes at their feet bright with the canary-coloured racemes of a showy *Calpurnia* mingling with the waxy-white blooms of the fragrant thorny *Oncoba*. Farther on one's eye is caught by a bright smudge of transparent blue, where a big-bloomed convolvulus with a pale lemon centre has draped itself so closely around and about the thorny dwarf iron-wood trees as completely to conceal them. New tender grasses are beginning to spring from the sorry, blackened roots left by the winter fires, and the starry, wistful, upturned faces of several kinds of *Dianthus*, of *Frankenias*, and fragrant *Canavalia*, are uplifted like so many gems in a setting of newly sprung verdure. A little later on, when the rains have become fairly frequent and regular, we shall see in its turn, and in most prodigal abundance, the waxy-white umbels of the exquisite *Crinum*. This

lily, which in the highlands of the interior possesses a strong, almost sickly perfume through which you may journey at times for days, loses its scent in the low-lying plains bordering the great rivers, and becomes almost if not entirely odourless. It rises to a height of rather over a foot from the ground, and its clusters, or umbels, of blooms are almost transparent white with longitudinal lines of salmon colour and a pale yellow centre. An uncommon pink gentian, I think the *Exacum quinquinervium*, is also found in the grass-lands, with four more members of the same family if of less attractive exterior.

I suppose, from such knowledge as I possess of the wide and constantly expanding subject of African flora, that taking the Zambezi valley as a whole, the three botanical divisions most commonly represented are the Leguminosæ, Apocynaceæ, and Compositæ, the Malvaceæ running them very close. The first named includes many valuable food products, whilst its range also comprehends timber trees of the utmost commercial value. The second named extends over the interesting and valuable indigenous rubber-producing vines, and includes multitudes of rambling shrubs, from the fragrant and beautiful *Acokanthera spectabilis* and *Adenium multiflorum*, that extraordinary shrub which does not flower until it sheds its leaves, to the poisonous *Strophanthus* and the *Carissa acuminata*. Of the forty different species of *Landolphia* vines belonging to the order of the Apocynaceæ, I am unaware of more than ten which yield rubber to a profitable extent, and of these the *L. florida* and the *L. petersiana* are the dry-country species. The

remainder, including probably the most valuable, namely *L. kirkii*, are dwellers in moist forests and rocky mountainous ravines, where their girth is increased and strengthened by the dense tree growths and the constant irrigation of the perennial torrents from the marshy plateaux above. A curious range of tropical growths is covered by the last order mentioned, extending from those common and often troublesome weeds the *Sida tribola* and the *S. cordifolia*, through the wild cotton-producing *Gossypium anomalum* which appears on the borders of forest country and abandoned native gardens, to that horrible remnant of a disordered dream the gigantic, useless baobab (*Adansonia digitata*). This last loathly monster, which, with its smooth, grey, diseased-looking bark, and gouty, unsightly, naked limbs, to say nothing of its spongy, useless, unacceptable apology for wood, is usually an indication of valueless, stony, uncultivable soil. Its flowers, which depend from long stalks, are of a dirty white, with yellow centres, and remind you, for their short blooming season, of so many inartistic electric-lamp reflectors. These in due course give place to huge seed vessels containing a white, sour-sweet, powdery pulp, of which a beverage may be concocted vaguely recalling an inferior sherbet which has ceased to effervesce. In many parts of South Africa this vegetable monster, whose trunk sometimes exceeds 80 feet in circumference, has come to be known as the "Cream of Tartar Tree." In the neighbourhood of the Lupata Gorge, the baobab is very well represented, as it is for many days to the westward.

Of palms there are five varieties, and these include the beautiful and valuable coconut, to which I have made somewhat lengthy allusion in a previous chapter. This splendid growth often rises to a height of 80 or 90 feet from the ground, and at all stages of its long and useful career presents an appearance at once striking and ornamental. Then comes the *Borassus flabellifer*, of which, on the lower courses of the Zambezi, immense numbers may be seen. This palm also grows to a great height—60 or 70 feet perhaps—and its huge, green, fan-like fronds may often be seen covered with the depending, stocking-like nests of a bright chrome-yellow weaver which, at the elevation thus chosen, has no cares or anxieties regarding the safety of its growing family. The *Borassus* is distinguished from, I believe, all other palms by a curious globular swelling which occurs almost in the middle of the trunk or stem, a singular characteristic which, I have noticed, is much more pronounced in some localities than in others. The *Hyphaene* is extremely like the last-named palm, but I do not think it grows to quite so great a height; moreover, the fruit, much loved by elephants for its spicy, pungent outer rind, is smaller than that of the *Borassus*, and occurs in large bunches containing a dozen nuts or more, each enclosing a hard white kernel faintly resembling some imitation of ivory. All along the coast line, and far into the interior, the smaller palm *Phoenix reclinata* grows at all points, and is much esteemed alike for its fibrous fronds, which provide the native with cordage for all purposes, and for the singular excel-

lence of the palm-wine which it yields when tapped. In several extensive districts of South Central Africa, the face of the country appears to be covered with disused telegraph poles. On a nearer approach, however, they are seen to be the trunks of countless phoenix palms denuded of their fronds and with all the sap sucked dry—mere melancholy mummified remnants of their former graceful selves. The Sura or wine yielded by this palm is very refreshing when it is newly drawn and carefully strained, but it quickly ferments and produces intoxication, an advantage much appreciated by the native. We now come to a very beautiful variety, and one not so common as any of those hitherto described. This, the delicious, glaucous-green *Raphia*, whose long tender fronds are of a more delicate hue than those of any other of the members of the palm families, is perhaps the least numerous of any. The solid centres of the fronds—their stalks so to speak—are of great service by reason of their lightness and strength. They are largely used for native building purposes. The *Raphia* does not grow to a great height, perhaps rarely more than 25 feet, and its seeds, like those of the other indigenous African palms, are entirely useless; but it would be difficult to imagine a more attractive ornamental growth, or one with a greater claim to protection. Wild date palms are also extremely delicate and lovely in appearance; their fronds are small, even as their trunks are comparatively slender. They abound on the banks of rivers and streams, their stems bending over the water as though anxious that the transparent verdure of their delicate

greenery should be duly appreciated by passers-by. The dates, unfortunately, are quite inferior, and only possible to the omnivorous native.

The number of lovely flowering trees and shrubs is very large, and, together with the different members of what may be called the grotesque families, form a class of wide interest. Let us imagine it is early December in the plains; the heat is oppressive, and the air humid from the exhalations which the sun's rays are drawing from the rain-sodden ground. You perspire at every pore, and there seems no limit to the amount you could drink if you once gave way to the hourly increasing temptation to commence. There is a soft sweetness in the atmosphere, the subtle mingling of the scents of many flowers. Above your head the sustained hum of scores of tiny brown bees tells of their activity among the sickly smelling blooms of a gayly coloured *Baphia*. A brilliantly glossy *Ficus*, I think the *F. cordata*, with clear, dark green foliage, throws into relief at its foot a bright, almost scarlet *Desmodium*, displaying a corolla so brilliant against the cool greenery of its sheltering neighbour that one almost involuntarily winks at the piquancy of the contrast. Farther on *Albizzias*, that well-known feathery-foliaged shade tree, are growing in close proximity to a group of *Acacias*, displaying masses of fragrant mustard-coloured flowers, shaped almost exactly like the tiny balls of velvety plush used as an edging for winter drawing-room curtains. *Trachylobium*s occur at many points, whilst several papilionaceous trees are covered with a perfect blaze of yellow on the one



HYPHÆNE PALMS.

hand and the transparent purple one sees in the Bougainvillea creeper on the other. A beautiful stately growth is the *Spathodea*, which also at this season of the year clothes itself in a brief glory of deep red flowers, sheltering beneath it to some extent a massive rock-like growth of *Candelabra euphorbia*. This grotesque, I will not say unlovely plant, possesses no leaves whatsoever; but in some faint degree suggests a quaint form of cactus, since from one common trunk or stem a multitude of vertical branches rise into the air to a height of 20 or 30 feet, something like the branches of an old-fashioned candelabrum. It is said with I know not how much truth that the white milky juice produces blindness on touching the eye. A little beyond, your attention is caught by a *Dracæna*, another of Nature's bizarreries. The branches of this remarkable plant, which also rises to a height of some 30 feet, descend downward, and then upward again, forming a sort of huge pothook. From the extreme end of this pothook a tuft of long narrow leaves sprouts, surrounding a short-lived white flower. I was often tormented by my inability to recollect what these tufted extremities reminded me of, until one day a small boy, who had not been in the hands of the barber for some time, came into the room of a house in which I was staying. Then I saw in the obstinate little bunch of mutinous hairs at the end of where his parting ought to have been the best simile for the extremity of a *Dracæna's* branch I could possibly have been furnished with.

Another humorous creation is the *Kigelia* (I

think the *K. pinnata*). This valueless prodigy also grows in the plains, in company with small acacias and attenuated trachylobiums, and is readily distinguished by the immensity of its heavy, sausage-shaped seed vessels, which, hanging at the extremity of a lengthy stalk, often measure three or four feet long by eighteen inches in circumference, and are of great weight. They contain a number of hard seeds, embedded in a fibrous substance not unlike a bath loofah, but much coarser, and of no use for that purpose. The tree itself, a poor, scabrous-trunked, sickly production, looks like some despondent consumptive, whose misdirected energies have been wasted in the production of a fruit of which it is evidently ashamed.

Then look at the Aloe. Here is another instance of Nature's playfulness. It was evidently intended to startle wayfarers by its poorly executed resemblance to some prehistoric reptile. It writhes over the surface of outcropping slabs of granite, its thick, fleshy limbs (I cannot call them leaves) in their red spots on a green base still trying, in the face of much discouragement, to carry on the old snake deception, and by now resigned to failure. I have never seen it in flower, but other writers state that during this period the Aloe is transfigured, and the warm waxy-red of its bloom is so vivid and alluring that you forget in contemplating it the unattractive features of the unlovely growth from which it sprang.

By the side of a small stream-bed you see massive *Khayas*,* their great limbs overhanging the

* The African Mahogany, an excellent timber tree.

sandy centre, all festooned with long loops of monkey ropes and lianas. These beautiful trees possess fine hard timber, and attain to great height and girth, as also does the Mwangele of the Sena people, which I believe to be a species of *Parkia*.* Apart, however, from their majestic appearance and great utility, neither of these trees possesses any pretensions to brilliant flowers or very striking appearance; but now that we have begun to enumerate the vast numbers of different varieties of timber trees, we see at a glance as we pass through the forest that the task is too formidable—there are far too many. Teak trees (*Oldfieldia*) are found in the same country as the Ebony (*Diospyros*), and not very far off you are sure to identify a *Parinarium* of immense height, with a top so extraordinarily rounded that with its vast circular dark green mass of foliage, rising from a stem as straight as a mast, it looks in the distance like some gigantic candle-lamp with a darkened globe. Some of these trees rise to a height of probably over 100 feet. Of other timber trees—and when I speak of timber trees I refer to varieties at least large enough to furnish girth sufficient for the cutting out of a native canoe—there are at least thirteen or fourteen different species, some possessing great hardness, with a fineness of grain which takes a perfect polish, and would, I consider, if their fine qualities were known, be in great demand among cabinet-makers.

A very beautiful feature of the constantly varying African forest scenery is the Bamboo. This

* I have since ascertained this tree to be the *Adina microcephala*.

graceful growth, which occurs in dense clumps or thickets, some of considerable extent and with canes of great thickness, is found all over the Zambezi country, and there are few more desirable halting-places than the shimmering, fairy-like bamboo glade, with the bright sunshine playing on the long, lancet-shaped, silvery leaves, and dappling the moss-grown carpet beneath with luminous spots of light. Here is another intensely useful plant, and even the leaves possess astonishing virtues when prescribed for an out-of-condition horse, which they fatten more quickly than anything else that has come to my knowledge. Indigo bushes are also occasionally seen, but are not so common as in the Mozambique district, where they are very numerous, and often rise to a height of four or five feet. Livingstone speaks of having met with it on Lake Nyasa, and our dear old clerical historian, Fr. João dos Santos, writing in the sixteenth century, says at that time the indigo was utilised by the Arabs then settled in East Africa, who extracted the colouring principle by methods not unlike those still employed, and dyed the textiles of Miluane, so called because they were worn by the people who lived in a country through which a river of that name passed.

Among the Liliacæ, the most singular family is perhaps that of the fibre-producing *Sansevierias*. This odd-looking growth sticks boldly out of the soil like some dark green rod which has been thrust into it. It is quite startling in its downrightness. It seems to say, "Here I am; there is no nonsense or ornamentation about me, and I require nothing whatever, thank you." The

extracted fibre varies much in value ; probably the best is obtained from the *S. kirkii*, or the *S. longiflora*. Another variety which I have seen is probably the *S. sulcata*, but the specimens I examined had not arrived at anything like maturity.

At every turn you get examples of the wide order of the Compositæ, stretching away upward from that common weed the *Adenostemma*, with its small bundles of pale mauve blooms, a common and unpleasantly prickly sow-thistle (*Sonchus*), many showy annuals, a horrible pest the *Bidens pilosa*, whose setæ adhere to your clothes and provoke language in no way connected with botanical research, and finally an endless array of rambling bushes and shrubs, some bearing small yellow flowers, which last but a short time ; and as their brief period of existence corresponds with the hottest time of the year, they escape, for the most part, the attention of mankind, in common with a thousand other beauties and graces of that uncomfortable season of the African year.

Having now, all too briefly and inadequately, sketched the attractive and beneficent among Nature's works in the world of trees and flowers, let us spend a moment in contemplating from a safe distance what I can only regard as the malevolent vegetation of the Zambezi—that wide class of noxious weed and spiteful thorn tree which, in the invariable nature of things, easily outlives the more graceful and desirable, in obedience to that ill-devised law which ordains universally that immortality, or such immortality as the vegetable world can attain to, shall be expressly reserved for such

members of that branch of the creation as possess no sort of possible excuse, either in the direction of utility or good looks, for being spared.

First and foremost come the thorn-bearing growths—those abominations apparently expressly created for the purpose of heightening human perfection, that perfection which we are told comes of trial and chastening. I am happy to say that the thorny, flat-topped acacia, the “wacht-ein-beitche” of South Africa, is very sparsely represented. In the Lower Zambezi I have, however, seen occasional trees in the dryer regions covered with devilish, sharp-pointed spikes four inches or more in length. Anything more forbidding than this spiteful plant it would be difficult to imagine, and I never see one without speculating upon what my feelings would be if, my empty rifle discarded and a vengeful buffalo in hot pursuit, this vegetable porcupine appeared in my path as the sole means of escape. I think I should resign myself to the horns of my pursuer in preference to self-immolation.

I have already made some allusion to the poisonous, milky juice of the *Candelabra euphorbia*, but there remain to be enumerated half a hundred different species of thorn-covered trailers, some armed with almost invisible points, which, nevertheless, caught across the shin, exercise about as sympathetic a contact with the skin as the fine edge of a newly sharpened file. A small bush with extraordinary tough limbs tears your putties to pieces with a weapon which is as sharp and curved and steely as a small fish-hook. Another larger bush, of whose name I am ignorant, takes small

pieces of flesh out of any portion of your person which may be exposed to it in passing, and if it find itself unable to do this, will suddenly tweak your hat from your head, and hold it suspended in mid-air, waiting with fiendish pertinacity for an opportunity to wreak its bloodthirsty vengeance on your fingers when you release it. Smaller growths, respecting whose names and orders I must confess to feeling but little curiosity, afflict you when trodden upon or crushed beneath you as you seat yourself for the midday meal with odours so truly awful that hunger gives way to a wild longing to escape their fœtor. Several lilies, probably nearly akin to the destructive, poisonous South African "Tulp," are a great danger in the early portion of the rainy season to horses and cattle, which should never be allowed to graze at that season of the year ; whilst another abomination is the *Erythrina tormentosa*, whose sole excuse for existence consists in its impenetrability when used for fencing purposes. I cannot conceive it possible for any person or animal to pass through such a hedge with anything left but his bare skeleton.

Before exhausting all the vials of my wrath upon these undesirable members of the vegetable kingdom, however, I must reserve the most vituperative of all in a special paragraph to do inadequate justice to the loathly cow-itch bean. This unspeakable pest, which could only have been devised in a moment of boundless vindictiveness towards the human race as a whole ; this foul, useless weed known to science as the *Mucuna*, grows in great quantities in old native gardens, on the top of the

river bank, on the outskirts of grass-patches, anywhere, in fact, where it sees any probability of being able to fulfil its hideous destiny. This is to drive people mad. About July the bean-pod, covered with almost imperceptible, hair-like spines, looks as though made of some inferior, rust-coloured velvet, and is quite dry. When trodden upon or disturbed, an impalpable cloud of these tiny hairs rises into the air and settles upon passers-by. For a few moments you feel nothing, THEN, suddenly, you experience a burning, itching irritation which yields to no sort of treatment I have yet discovered. It is as though the whole of the part affected had been deeply bitten by the most venomous fleas in the entire Tring collection. I have seen natives tear off their clothing and plunge madly into the river, regardless of the presence of numbers of crocodiles. Men marching in single file display as much solicitude in warning those who follow of the presence of the dreaded *Mucuna* as they would of that of some poisonous snake.

In my descriptions of Zambezan flora, I have hitherto said little of the many varieties of flowering shrubs and climbers found in these districts, especially of those of the wide Leguminosæ order known to botany as *Pseudarthria*, with their wonderfully luxuriant efflorescence of sweet-smelling flowers, the tiny corolla pale salmon-pink, ovaries and calyx dull reddish-crimson. The *Abruses* also abound, both the *A. precatorius* and the *A. pulchellus*, displaying through their half-opened seed vessels pretty scarlet seeds, each marked with a single

shiny black spot. I have been told that this order abounds in India also, where its seeds are much used as ornaments by the various races. A very pretty trellis creeper is the *Clitorea ternatea*, with its quaintly shaped, crushed-strawberry shaded flowers. It thrives as well in the garden as in the wilds, many houses I am acquainted with having reclaimed it for use against verandahs and out-buildings; its greenery faintly recalls that of the well-known Virginia creeper.

In the more elevated regions of this part of Africa, the flora indicates marked changes the higher one goes. Thus, on the way up to the Angoni plateau, and having somewhat wearied, it may be, of the consistent, the almost tiring beauty of the maze of valleys and mountains, and anon more valleys still, bewildering in their bold magnificence as in their multitude, one turns with something of relief to observe the details by the way. The general characteristics are not unlike what one might expect to find on Scottish uplands; bracken, gorse, and low bushes, with patches of trees down in the hollows bordering the stream-beds. Then there are shrubs resembling heath or St. John's wort, and wide expanses of familiar bracken, and one becomes aware, with a sigh of real pleasure, that the hateful thorn bushes of the plain are left behind. Among the short rich grass you see clover growing, and the entire effect is pleasantly homelike. It would not be using the language of exaggeration to say that the flower display of the higher uplands during the brief period of the African spring is as amazing in its

brilliant colouring as it is striking in the richness of its varieties. It would be impossible to imagine anything more beautiful than these bright, and at the same time exquisitely harmonised colour effects, and it would be a task in itself to enumerate a fraction of the many flowering plants which literally strew one's path, among which the more easily recognised are pale mauve irises, deep red gladioli, pink anemones, gentians, pretty miniature sun-flowers of the coreopsis family, sulphur-coloured hibiscuses, leafless amomums—their blooms on a level with the ground—marguerites, mallows, a delicious white clematis, and a hundred more.

The grasses and rushes of Zambezia must comprise in their wide range considerably over a hundred species, the greater portion of which are probably but little if at all known. The largest variety of the former must, I suppose, be the wild banana, found growing somewhat above the elevation of the plains, and away from their intense heat. They are handsome plants, and their tender transparent green leaves afford a refreshing contrast to their usually somewhat grey and sombre neighbours. They often grow to a size considerably larger than the varieties cultivated for the sake of the fruit. It is perhaps not generally known that the latter only bear one bunch of bananas, and should then be cut down to make way for the younger plants. The juice of the banana is said to be a remedy for dysenteric attacks. We now come to the beautiful, spiteful Spear Grass (*Phragmites communis*), which surrounds nearly all our inland waters. Here we have a bright grass-green growth, which springs

to a height of ten feet or more, its snowy, plume-like flower heads dancing on its wind-swept, billowy greenery like foaming wave-crests. The extremity of each blade is armed with a sharp, needle-like point, the whole being sufficiently stiff to enable it to penetrate your clothing and draw blood in a most merciless fashion. Its brakes form the favourite midday haunt of the buffalo, and one or two other great game beasts, and the difficulty of their pursuit into these well-defended fastnesses can perhaps be sufficiently well imagined.

The dense covering of vegetable growth beneath which the land conceals itself during the rainy season includes certain canes and grasses of great thickness and denseness, and of extraordinary height. There is one in particular which occurs along the banks of the more elevated stream-beds, of whose real name I am ignorant or at least uncertain, but travellers who are familiar with the Shiré River will recognise it under its native name of "Bango." This reed grows to a height of something over twelve feet, and its canes, some almost an inch in diameter, are utilised by the natives in the manufacture of mats of all sorts, and for all purposes, from the small floor covering only sufficiently large to enable one person to repose upon it, to a piece eighteen or twenty feet long which is used for drying the newly washed coffee berry. A smaller growth, a species of *Stipa*, covers hundreds of square miles of country, and is much used for thatching purposes. This undersized variety only grows to an inconsiderable five or six feet, and has an uncomfortable habit of shaking down upon you, as

you pass beneath it, avalanches of seeds from its bunchy heads which adhere to clothing, and, by means of a sharp barbed point, work their way through it until they scratch and irritate the skin. Another still smaller variety possesses razor-sharp blades, which, drawn across the skin as in the case of swinging one's arm in the act of marching, administer painful if not very deep cuts, and are the occasion of much annoyance.

I have, however, never been able yet to identify the grass which has caused me the most suffering; but it is one of comparatively low growth, and is found—or at least found me—in high, upland, forest country. This abomination—the *Mucuna* of the *Graminæ*—detaches as you march through it an invisible but highly irritating dust, which penetrates between your boots and leggings, or works its way through the joints of your putties, and, aided thereto by the dampness of your perspiring limbs, sets up a strong and rapidly developing inflamed rash. On one occasion, whilst I was hunting elephants in Cheringoma, I awoke one morning after an almost sleepless night from this cause, to find my feet and ankles so swollen that I appeared to be suffering from incipient elephantiasis, and for two whole days was unable to take the road. I have, however, only enumerated the most spiteful (and therefore the most easily remembered) of the Zambezian grasses. Others there are, and their name is legion, from a graceful flowering growth similar in appearance to the well-known Pampas grass, down to a tiny, fairy-like variety often seen in somewhat poor soil, whose

closely interwoven seed-bearing heads are so delicate that you appear to be walking over acres of a thick diaphanous carpet of intangible mauve.

There can be no doubt, however, that African grasses may be confidently catalogued amongst those of her annoyances which often amount to a danger. Their principal objection consists in their pertinacious inexplicable reappearance in the most carefully tended gardens after every shower of rain, and their danger in the fact that where neglected they shut the air from the soil and enable it to bottle up its miasmatic exhalations below the surface, so that when the time comes for the husbandman to turn over and cleanse his land, he is almost as sure of fever as he who scorns a mosquito net and scoffs at quinine.

But apart from grasses, be they kindly or spiteful, repulsive or attractive, there yet remain to be considered the beauties of the marsh, a locality which I am well aware does not suggest in its name alone the probability of the presence of interesting forms of life, but which, in Africa at least, possesses them none the less.

Once through the reed-surrounded margin, in which you have doubtless sustained some loss of blood from the sharp-pointed blades of the inevitable spear grass, your eye is immediately plucked to the pale blue water lilies, whose fragrant heads dot the surface of the shallow water, their broad green leaves affording secure foothold to long-limbed stilts, and other species of nimble-footed water fowl, which run confidently from one to the other, their eyes fixed upon the water. Sharing

with these the surface of the marsh, a curious member of the Limnaceæ order, the bright green, lettuce-like *Pistia* may be seen, its long semi-transparent roots reaching deep down into the water. It is not unlike some gigantic form of duck-weed, and no Zambezian inland water or marsh is complete without it. In the backwaters of the great river itself it is not uncommon, and when torn from its moorings by some freshet of the early rains, small floating islands of pistia heads may be met borne upon the current on their way to the sea.

But the glory of the marsh is the Papyrus, and some of these great rushes grow to an immense and most impressive size. I have found them in the Bungwes, or vast expanses of marsh south of Luabo, nine or ten feet high, their pellucid, tubular stems, full of transparent juice, five or six inches in circumference, and of a pale apple-green. Overhanging the water at a variety of angles and curves the papyrus displays its large green head, often so heavy as to rob the plant of any rush-like straightness. These are all sizes, the larger attaining to the dimensions of the largest-sized household mop, from the rounded surface of which long, gossamery filaments, reminding you of diaphanous, apple-green, silky threads, and cleft at the extremities, stick out like soft bristles. It was from the pith of this remarkable growth that the writing paper of the ancient Egyptians was made, although we can only form hazardous guesses at the processes through which it passed to emerge in the form which then did duty for paper.

We now come to domestic growths, or those destined for the use of the tribes, and planted on the outskirts of their numerous villages. Of these, first and foremost we find the staple Millet (*Sorghum vulgare*). This cereal, known through South and South Central Africa as "Mapira," is very extensively cultivated wherever the soil is even moderately productive. This is the native food of the country *par excellence*, and in addition to a food stuff, is used, boiled and fermented, in the production of beer. It is closely run on the Shiré River, and in some of the highlands, by maize, which latter, however, requires a richer and damper soil. Among the maize and millet gardens large quantities of pumpkins are sown, several varieties, notably the *Luffa ægyptica*, the *Cucumis figarei*, the *Cucurbita maxima*, and the *C. pepo*, as well as the calabash gourd (*Lagenaria vulgaris*), sprawling about amidst the dry grass, "Cobbler's peg" weed, and other low types of vegetation which are allowed to grow with the village food stuffs. Rice is only found in large areas near the coast, but another cereal planted for its oil is the *Eleusine coracana*, or "Meixuera." At a time when settlers in these districts of Africa have been seriously exercised to discover profitable forms of export, it has surprised me that efforts have not been made in favourable localities to plant maize, and that other profitable product the common Ground-nut (*Arachis hypogæa*) in large quantities. For maize the demand in European markets is large and increasing, and many years must pass, I doubt not, before ground-nuts will show any

symptom of becoming a drug in the markets of Hamburg and Marseilles.

Another important native food stuff is the Manioc or Cassava. Its roots, pounded and washed, are dried and made into an appetising and nutritious flour, whilst that excellent tuber the Sweet Potato is also grown in large quantities. On the outskirts of every village you are certain to find groves of edible bananas, and, close by the huts themselves, luxuriant castor-oil plants (*Ricinus communis*), at times covered with the seeds from which is expressed in crude form that oil of our childhood days whose memories haunt us still. Many kinds of beans are grown, but especially one which occurs on a low cultivated bush whose odour attracts to it numbers of beetles which may be seen all day long droning in circles round the bunches of pods. A sedulously cultivated growth is the Chillie Pepper bush, whose bright red corns furnish the African with the most important of his few condiments. For cooking he uses the oil of the Sesamum seed, as that of the Meixuera above referred to, and a pleasing relish is imported into his diet by tomatoes, which likewise grow in great profusion. The African's vices, or some of them, are ministered to by the snuff and cigars—he rarely smokes a pipe—concocted from the really excellent tobacco plants cultivated for the purpose, and by the hemp (*Datura*) which he also smokes from a gourd, and which induces fits of lung-shaking coughing.

Among the fruits produced for native consumption or sale, the most common is the banana of



A RICE FIELD.

various kinds. From time to time the Paw-paw (*Carica papaya*) makes its appearance in the villages, whilst pine-apples and, rarely, oranges and lemons occur in some of the centres established near the older Portuguese settlements. Near the coast a very striking growth is the Cashew (*Anacardium occidentale*) naturalised from India, as also the Mango (*Mangifera indica*). Their fruit about the end of the year, and, from the former, both fermented and distilled beverages of an extremely intoxicating character are obtained. In the Mozambique district the natives are for weeks on end almost unobtainable for labour at this time of year, passing their time in the most abandoned drunkenness.

When one comes to reflect upon the large number of the foregoing native necessities, which are now known to have been introduced from the Nile, from Southern Asia, Arabia, Portugal, and even America, in comparatively recent times, one's mind loses itself in futile speculation as to what the unfortunate negro found to live upon before all these things were obligingly brought to him. We have seen from the ancient works of the earliest observers, that on their arrival in Africa a large number of the tribes—including all the warlike ones—were addicted to the horrible practice of cannibalism, and I think we may regard ourselves as to some extent furnished with an explanation of the conditions from which this unimaginable practice sprang. The wretched people had not sufficient food. By this I do not mean that the prehistoric Ethiopian subsisted in

a state of continual famine ; but if, with all his present food stuffs and the manifold resources held out by their number and variety want even now appears, what, we ask ourselves, could have been the condition of the tribes of ancient times, when the staple of that day, fish, dried game meat, or what you will, became scarce, and hunger stared him in the face ? I have little doubt that on being assailed by the first premonitory pangs he sprang to his feet, seized his weapons, and went off on a hunting raid which had for its object nothing less than the human game whose flesh kept body and soul together until the return of better times. It is a ghastly idea, I admit, but neither more nor less improbable than many other wild and hazardous theories regarding him which on examination have been found to possess sufficient foundation as such.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER VII

LIST OF PLANTS, ETC., OBSERVED IN ZAMBEZIA

ACANTHACEÆ

Brillantaseia pubescens
Thunbergia dregeana
T. kirkii
T. alata
Hygrophila spinosa
Dyschoriste verticillaris
Ruellia prostrata
Phayloopsis longifolia
Crabbea hirsuta
Barleria spinulosa
Crossandra nilotica
Asystasia coromandeliana
Justicia protracta
J. betonica
J. natalensis

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ACANTHACEÆ—*continued*

Barleria repens
B. meyeriana
Hypoestes aristata
H. verticillaris
Rhinacanthus communis

AMARANTHACEÆ

Amaranthus spinosus
Achryanthes aspera
Cyathula globulifera
Celosia trygina
Sericocoma chrysurus
Pupalia atropurpurea
Erva lanata
Alteranthera sessilis
Gomphrena globosa

AMPELIDÆ

- Vitus quadrangularis
- V. capensis
- V. cuneifolia
- V. lanigera
- V. thunbergii
- V. integrifolia

ANACARDIACÆ

- Rhus insignis
- R. glaucescens
- R. villosa
- R. longifolia
- Mangifera indica
- Anacardium occidentale
- Sclerocarya caffra

ANONACÆ

- Anona senegalensis
- Uvaria caffra
- Artobotrys monteiri

APOCYNACÆ

- Strophanthus petersiana
- Voacanga thonarsii
- V. lutescens
- Adenium multiporum
- Plumeria rubra
- Rauwolfia natalensis
- Acocanthera spectabilis
- A. venenata
- Carissa acuminata
- C. arduina
- Landolphia florida
- L. petersiana
- L. kirkii
- L. watsoni
- Diplorrynchus mossambicensis

ARALIACÆ

- Cussonia spicata
- C. umbellifera

ASCLEPIADÆ

- Raphionacme splendens
- R. densiflora
- Secamone frutescens
- Microstephenus cernuus

ASCLEPIADÆ—continued

- Xysmalobium involucratum
- Asclepias densiflora
- A. physocarpa
- A. sphacelata
- Pachycarpus concolor
- Sarcostemma viminalis
- Demia extensa
- D. barbata
- Cynanchum crassifolium
- Tylophora springefolia
- Pergularia africana
- Ceropegia mozambicensis
- C. sandersoni
- Riocreuxia torulosa
- Brachystelma natalense
- Stapelia gigantea

BIGNONIACÆ

- Tecoma capensis
- Kigelia pinnata

BIXINÆ

- Encoba spinosa
- Aberia longispina

BORAGINÆ

- Cordia caffra

BURSERACÆ

- Balsamodendron africanum

* CAMPANULACÆ

- Lobelia erinus
- L. decipiens

CAPPARIDACÆ

- Cleome monophylla
- Marua angolensis
- Cadaba sp.
- Capparis citrifolia
- C. corymbifera
- C. zeheri

CARYOPHYLLACÆ

- Dianthus prostratus
- Silene burchellii
- S. gallica
- Stellaria media

CARYOPHYLLACEÆ—*continued*

- Spergula arvensis*
- Drymaria cordata*
- Polycarpea corymbosa*

CELASTRACEÆ

- Celastrus angularis*
- C. buxifolia*
- C. procumbens*
- C. penduncularis*
- Eleodendron capense*
- E. laurifolium*
- E. velutinum*
- E. ethiopicum*
- Salacia kraussii*

CHENOPODIACEÆ

- Chenopodium murale*
- Salicornia herbacea*

COMBRETACEÆ

- Lumnitzera racemosa*
- Combretum erythrophyllum*
- C. sonderi*
- Quisqualis parviflora*

COMPOSITE

- Ethulia conyzoides*
- Vernonia kraussii*
- V. natalensis*
- V. corymbosa*
- V. dregeana*
- V. angulifolia*
- Adenostemma viscosum*
- Ageratum conyzoides*
- Mikania scandens*
- Erigeron canadense*
- Nidorella auriculata*
- N. linifolia*
- Conyza incisa*
- C. ivefolia*
- Blumea lacera*
- B. natalensis*
- Laggera alata*
- Guaphalium luteo-album*
- G. purpureum*
- Helichrysum adenocarpum*

COMPOSITE—*continued*

- H. fetidum*
- H. cymosum*
- H. decorum*
- H. gerrardi*
- H. kraussii*
- H. latifolium*
- H. rugulosum*
- Athrixia gerrardi*
- Xanthium spinosum*
- X. strumarium*
- Siegesbeckia orientalis*
- Eclipta erecta*
- Wedelia biflora*
- Melanthera brownei*
- Spilanthes africana*
- Bidens pilosa*
- B. bipinnata*
- Gynura cernua*
- Senecio vulgaris*
- S. picridifolius*
- S. speciosus*
- S. lancens*
- S. angulatus*
- S. ruderalis*
- Osteospermum scaposa*
- Haplocarpha scaposa*
- Gazania uniflora*
- Berkheya zeyheri*
- Dicoma anomala*
- Gerbera piloselloides*
- G. kraussii*
- Lactuca capensis*
- Sonchus olraceus*
- Lannea bellidifolia*

CONVOLVULACEÆ

- Ipomea angustifolia*
- I. digitata*
- I. obscura*
- I. palmata*
- I. purpurea*
- Hewittea bicolor*
- Jacquemontia capitata*
- Convolvulus farinosus*
- Evolvulus alsinoides*

CRASSULACEÆ

- Crassula rubicunda
- C. expansa
- C. quadrifolia
- C. dregeana
- Bryophyllum calycinum
- Kalanchoe crenata
- K. rotundifolia

CRUCIFERÆ

- Cardamine africana
- Sisymbrium capense
- Brassica strigosa
- Lepidium sativum
- Senebiera integrifolia
- S. didyma

CUCURBITACEÆ

- Peponia mackenii
- Lagenaria vulgaris
- Luffa egyptica
- Spherosicyos meyeri
- Momordica charantia
- Benincasa cerifera
- Cucumis figarei
- C. hirsutus
- Citrullus vulgaris
- Cephalandria indica
- Cucurbita maxima
- C. pepo
- Zehneria scabra

DROSERACEÆ

- Drosera burkeana
- D. ramentacea

EBENACEÆ

- Royena pallens
- R. villosa
- Euclea lanceolata
- E. divinorum
- Maba buxifolia

EUPHORBIACEÆ

- Euphorbia pilulifera
- E. indicata
- E. grandidens
- E. tirucalli
- E. cervicornis

EUPHORBIACEÆ—*continued*

- Synadenium arborescens
- Bridelia micrantha
- Phyllanthus glaucophyllus
- Antidesma venosum
- Jatropha hirsuta
- J. gossypifolia
- J. curcas
- Croton sylvaticus
- Acalypha petiolaris
- Ricinus communis
- Manihot utilissima

FICOIDEÆ

- Mesembryanthemum edule
- Aizoon canariense
- Sesuvium portulacastrum
- Erygia decumbens
- Molugo glinus
- M. cerviana
- Limeum viscosum

FRANKENIACEÆ

- Frankenia pulverulenta

GENTIANEÆ

- Exacum quinquenervium
- Sebea aurea
- Belmontia grandis
- Chironia baccifera
- Neurothica schlechteri
- Faroa involucrata

GERANIACEÆ

- Monsonia biflora
- Geranium ornithopodium
- Pelargonium capitatum
- P. grossularioides
- Oxalis corniculata
- O. convexula

HALORAGACEÆ

- Serpicula repens
- Gunnera perpensa

HYPERICINEÆ

- Hypericumalandii
- H. lanceolatum

ILICINEÆ

Ilex capensis

LABIATÆ

Ocimum basilicum

O. suave

Moschosma reparium

Pycnostachys reticulata

Plectranthus petiolaris

P. tomentosus

Syncolostemon ramulosum

Hyptis pectinata

Mentha aquatica

Stachys ethiopica

Leunotis leonurus

L. nepetefolia

LAURINEÆ

Cryptocarya acuminata

LEGUMINOSÆ

Crotalaria capensis

C. globifera

C. macrocarpa

C. natalitia

C. striata

C. lanceolata

Argyrolobium uniflorum

A. ascendens

A. racemosum

Medicago lupulina

M. denticulata

M. laciniata

Melilotus parviflora

Trifolium africanum

Lotus arabicus

Psoralea pinnata

P. obtusifolia

Indigofera dregeana

I. eudecaphylla

I. hirsuta

I. vestita

I. micrantha

I. velutina

I. polycarpa

Teplirosia canescens

T. discolor

LEGUMINOSÆ—*continued*

T. macropoda

T. longipes

Mundulea suberosa

Millettia caffra

M. sutherlandii

Sesbanea aculeata

S. punctata

Eschynomene uniflora

Smithia sensitiva

Arachis hypogæa

Desmodium hirtum

D. incanum

D. dregeanum

Pseudarthria hookeri

Abrus precatorius

A. pulchellus

Clitorea ternatea

Glycine javanica

Teramnus labialis

Erythrina caffra

E. humei

E. tomentosa

Canavalia obtusifolia

C. ensiformis

Phaseolus trinervius

Vigna burchellii

V. buteola

V. marginata

V. vexillata

Dolichos lablab

D. biflorus

D. axillaris

Rhynchosia minima

R. caribea

R. hirsuta

Eriosema parviflorum

E. cordatum

Dalbergia armata

Baphia racemosa

Calpurnia laciogyne

Sophora tormentosa

Cordyla africana

Cesalpinia bonducella

Cassia delagoensis

C. mimosoides

LEGUMINOSÆ—*continued*

- C. obvata
- C. tomentosa
- Bauhinia articulata
- Afzelia cuanzensis
- Tamarindus indica
- Entada scandens
- Acacia pennata
- A. arabica
- A. kraussiana
- A. spinosa
- Albizzia lebbek
- A. factigiata

LENTIBULARINÆ

- Utricularia prehensilis
- U. stellaris

LINÆ

- Erythroxylon emargitanum

LOGANIACEÆ

- Nuxia oppositifolia
- Buddleia salviifolia
- Strychnos spinosa
- S. atherstonei

LORANTHACEÆ

- Loranthus dregei
- L. kraussianus
- Viscum continuum
- V. obovatum

LYTHRACEÆ

- Nesea floribunda
- N. erecta
- Sonneratia acida

MALPHIGIACEÆ

- Acridocarpus natalitius

MALVACEÆ

- Malvastrum spicatum
- M. capense
- Sida triloba
- S. carpinifolia
- S. cordifolia
- S. spinosa
- Abutilon indica
- A. glaucum

MALVACEÆ—*continued*

- Urena lobata
- Pavenia odorata
- P. microphylla
- Hybiscus trionum
- H. vitifolius
- H. physaloides
- H. furcatus
- H. tiliaceus
- H. calycinus
- Gossypium anomalum
- G. herbaceum
- Adansonia digitata

MELASTROMACEÆ

- Dissotis pheotricha
- D. incana
- D. eximia
- Barringtonia racemosa

MELIACEÆ

- Melia azedarach
- Trichilia emetica
- Ximenia caffra
- Apodytes dimidiata

MENISPERMACEÆ

- Cocculus villosus
- Cissampelos pariera
- C. torulosa
- Stephania hernandiflora

MORINGACEÆ

- Moringa pterygosperma

MYRSINÆ

- Myrsine melanophleas
- Embelia kraussii

MYRTACEÆ

- Eugenia cordatum
- E. owariensis

NYPHEACEÆ

- Nymphaea stellata

OLEACEÆ

- Jasminum multipartitum
- J. streptopus
- J. walleri
- Schrebera alata
- Olea verrucosa

ONAGRARIOÆ

*Jussieua diffusa**J. pilosa**Trapa bispinosa*

PAPAVERACEÆ

*Papaver gariepense**Argemone mexicana**Fumaria officinalis*

PASSIFLOREÆ

*Tryphostemma sandersoni**Ophiocaulon gummifer*

PEDALINEÆ

*Sesamum indicum**Ceratotheca triboba*

POLYGALEÆ

*Polygala capillaris**P. confusa**P. myrtifolia**P. rarifolia*

POLYGONACEÆ

*Oxygonum dregeanum**Polygonum lanigerum**P. tomentosum*

PORTULACEÆ

*Portulaca oleracea**P. pilosa**Talinum cafrum**Tamarix articulata*

RANUNCULACEÆ

*Clematis kirkii**C. stanleyi**C. grata**Thalictrum rhynocarpum**Ranunculus pinnatus*

RHAMNEÆ

*Zizyphus jujuba**Z. mucronata**Berchemia discolor**Colubrina asiatica**Helinus ovatus*

RHIZOPHORACEÆ

*Rhizophora mucronata**R. racemosa**Ceriops candoliana*RHIZOPHORACEÆ—*continued**Bruguira gymnorrhiza**Weihea africana**Cassipourea verticillata*

ROSACEÆ

Rubus rigidus

RUBIACEÆ

*Oldenlandia decumbens**O. caffra**O. macrophylla**Mussenda arcuata**Randia dumetorum**Gardenia thunbergii**G. citriodora**G. gerrardiana**Oxyanthus latifolius**Tricalysis sanderiana**Pentanisia variabilis**Vangueria infausta**V. edulis**Fadogia lasiantha**Pavetta gerrardi**P. lanceolata**Spermacoce stricta**Richardia scabra**Mitracarpum scabrum**Rubia cordifolia*

RUTACEÆ

*Toddalia lanceolata**T. natalensis**Clausena inequalis*

SALVADORACEÆ

Salvadora persica

SAPINDACEÆ

*Cardiospermum halicacabum**Schmidelia monophylla**S. rubifolia**S. alnifolia**Sapindus capensis**Dodonea viscosa*

SAPOTACEÆ

*Chrysophyllum natalense**Sideroxylon inerme**Mimusops caffra**M. obovata*

SCROPHULARINÆ

Nemesia cynanchifolia
Halleria lucida
Anastrabe integerrima
Manulea parviflora
Striga coccinea
S. forbesii
Buttonia natalensis
Sopubia dregeana

SELAGINÆ

Hebenstreitia dentata
H. comosa
Selago hyssopifolia
S. racemosa

SOLANACEÆ

Solanum auriculatum
S. sanctum
S. nigrum
Physalis peruviana
Withania somnifera
Nicandra physaloides
Lycium acutifolium
Datura stramonium

STERCULIACEÆ

Dombeya multiflora
Hermannia filipes
Mahernia sp.
Waltheria americana

TILIACEÆ

Grewia columnaris
G. caffra

TILIACEÆ—*continued*

G. occidentalis
G. pilosa
Triumfetta pilosa
T. rhomboidea
T. tomentosa
Corchorus olitorius
C. acutangulus

UMBELLIFERÆ

Hydrocotyle asiatica
H. umbellata
Alepidea amatymbica
Apium graveolens
Ammi majus
Carum carvi
Sium thunbergii

URTICACEÆ

Celtis kraussiana
Trema bracteolata
Chetacme aristata
Cannabis sativa
Ficus cordata
Urtica urens

VERBENACEÆ

Lippia nodiflora
Priva dentata
Premna viburnoides
P. senensis
Clerodendron glabrum
Avicennia officinalis

ZYGOPHYLLÆ

Tribulus terrestris

CHAPTER VIII

BIRDS—INSECTS—REPTILES

I THINK perhaps the best method of offering some description of the teeming Avi-fauna of this part of Africa will be to arrange it, so far as possible, into three divisions, and study in turn the bird life of the hills, the rivers, and the plain, for each of these localities possesses its own families, and each forms an interesting background in which to consider them.

As we have seen, the mountainous regions, or to be more precise, the elevated tablelands and plateaux, are in many respects not unlike those of Europe : rolling uplands covered with short grass, bracken, gorse, and clover ; but few trees, and these of more or less stunted growth. Here we find birds of sombre plumage, their feathers displaying few of the exuberant colours so characteristic of those of the lower altitudes. It is as though at the commencement of the great Scheme of Things care had been taken that where, in the harmonious arrangement of the whole, brilliant-hued members of one branch of the creation were non-existent or few, no brightly coloured stragglers from other branches were permitted to intrude, and thus

destroy by their unnecessary and embarrassing presence the general smoothness and consistency of the whole effect. In the highlands, therefore, coinciding with the subdued tints of the plateau scenery, we have a bird life chiefly distinguished by the soberness of its plumage, and the insignificance of its claims to the possession of fine feathers.

We will commence with the raptorial families, which, although not by any means confined to hill country, yet naturally suggest themselves for first consideration by reason of their wild, untamable nature, which accords so closely with the environment we have chosen for them.

First and foremost in this class we find that magnificent variety the Warlike Crested Eagle. I do not know why the adjective warlike should have become so constantly associated with this bird, for, to the best of my belief, there is no evidence that he displays a more pugnacious disposition than other members of his order, but his scientific name, *Spizætus bellicosus*, is doubtless responsible for the reputation he has received. He stands nearly four feet high, and his wing plumage of glossy black, turning to grey on the belly and thighs, is somewhat toned down by an admixture of rich chocolate-brown on the back and body feathers. His head, surmounted by a thick crest of dusky feathers, terminates in a massive, powerful, hooked beak, whilst his talons are probably larger and more powerful than those of any other African eagle. If *Spizætus* is the most impressive of this branch of bird life, assuredly the next in point of

majesty, with many pretensions to beauty and grace, is the misleadingly named Fish Eagle (*Haliaeetus vocifer*). But little inferior in size to his warlike relative, this cheery soul, whose shrill screams echo not unmusically over these waste places of the earth, takes life much less seriously. His garb of reddish brown to dark slaty grey on back and wing covers, is relieved by a shirt-front of snowy white, and is a true index to his gay, loquacious temperament. The conversations sustained by two or more of these birds, soaring mere specks in the blue vault, will keep you entertained by the hour. You can almost get some inkling of their meaning, and quite follow the eagerness of their interrogations, the one of the other, as to whether they are likely to get a meal to-day or not. They are quite omnivorous, and whether the find be the corpse of a fish, a fowl, or an elephant, they are quite ready to sink the claim to monopoly implied by their name, and lend a willing beak to the cleansing of the bones of any deceased animal. The *Helotarsus ecaudatus*, or tailless Bateleur Eagle, and another smaller though equally handsome bird, are very common, whilst the large Gypohierax, or Vulturine Eagle, may frequently be distinguished hovering among birds of prey as they circle over a newly killed beast. Among the buzzards are the disgusting bare-necked or so-called Turkey Buzzards, *Buteo desertorum*, the *B. augur*, and another probably the *Asturina*. The Swallow-tailed Kite and the Egyptian variety are exceedingly common, and hover all day long over the back premises of even populous settlements with great confidence, a source

of much misgiving and anxiety to small chickens, amongst which they work considerable havoc. Their pale chocolate and grey plumage may often be seen making a conspicuous contrast with the bluey-white of sea-gulls as they wheel about the sterns of vessels at anchor in many of the East African waters. But the Kite realises his day of plenty on the arrival of a swarm of locusts, into which he dives from above, grabbing the large green insects, tearing them to pieces, and devouring them in full flight. Among falcons the small *Falco minor* is generally distributed, as also *F. ruficollis*, but, so far as I am aware, these are the only varieties hitherto reported. His Excellency the Governor-General of the Province of Mozambique (Major A. Freire de Andrade) recently showed me a remarkably fine young specimen of what I believe to be a most interesting, if not wholly new, species of Secretary Bird, which had been obtained in the southern portion of the province. This specimen appeared to me to be much larger than the ordinary Accipitrine, whilst possessing in some degree most of the peculiarities of that variety. I was also informed that the same bird is found in the Sena district of the Zambezi, where, and in the neighbouring areas, are also found Serpent Hawks, two true Vultures (*Gyps kolbii* and *Neophron perenopteros*), and an Osprey.

Coming now to the Galliformes, the mountain plateaux in certain districts abound in quails, I think the Coturnix, as also a very fine partridge, similar to but rather larger than the English bird. Of the latter there is also a somewhat smaller variety,

exhibiting singularly beautiful marking, brownish black on back and wings, blue-grey on belly and sides, with bright red beak and legs. Both these birds are strong fliers, and rise boldly when not too much shot at. Guinea-fowl are not found in the higher elevations, so that the quail and the francolins mentioned may be regarded as the only game birds usually met with in the higher portions of this part of Africa.

There are many song birds, foremost among these perhaps being the buntings. These cheery little creatures, of greyish plumage relieved by generous splashes of bright yellow, have a very sweet song, as also certain finches, of which there are several varieties in Zambezia. But the most entertaining, I think, of all the smaller genera, and one common both to the mountain and the plain, common indeed anywhere, and perfectly happy whilst he can find somebody to amuse with his quaint antics, is the perky Crested Bulbul, justly classified *strepitans*. He possesses but little in the way of bodily finery, but he has a good, loud, strident voice, and boundless energy. He comes to your window in the early morning, accompanied by his equally voluble spouse, and together they carry on a chattering dialogue, mainly, as it would appear, relative to figures, since his principal remarks appear to be based upon variations of the Portuguese phrase "Dois mil e quinhent's" (2,500). These are accompanied by brilliant gymnastic feats, and by a constant flirting of the wings and tail, and erecting and depressing of his impudent crest. He is a hustling, inconsiderate, impertinent rascal,

but vastly entertaining. Among other song birds of the higher elevations one or more larks occur. I believe they may be included among singing birds, for, although I have never seen one in the act, yet I have heard in their midst songs so similar to that of the British variety, that, with the utmost confidence that justice is being done, I unhesitatingly accord them the benefit of the doubt. There is, moreover, a beautiful song thrush, not resembling our home bird, it is true, but capable of whistling sweetly. Warblers of many kinds fill the woods in springtime with their cheery notes. Among the weavers, the Widow-bird (*Vidua paradisea*) is a striking example. He is so called from two long, jet-black feathers so absurdly out of proportion to his size that you wonder how he can fly at all. This bird, whose remaining colour scheme is worked out in pale red and dark cream, is usually accompanied by a dozen or more females, who are doubtless proud of their lord's singular distinctive adornment.

I have never seen in Zambezia the Sparrow, attributed by other observers to neighbouring portions of South Central Africa, and I doubt very much if it is to be found here. Both in North Africa and also in some of our Southern African Colonies this bird is common—too common—but there is evidently some disturbing influence which has luckily checked its penetration into the central portions of the great continent, where, however, another member of the sparrow family is by no means unknown.

The lower elevations of the territories bordering

the Zambezi display a vast number of bird families. In the absence of ostriches, which are nowhere found, we will commence with the game birds. Of these *Numida coronata*, the common Guinea-fowl, is very plentiful, as many as thirty being, at times, seen in a pack. Who has not blessed this noble bird, when, hungry from a long day's march, it has redeemed his frugal menu from a vagueness bordering on famine. *N. mitrata*, the East African variety, is also to be found throughout the Zambezi valley, as also the well-known crested bird (*Guttera eduardi*). There is probably no more satisfactory result of a good right and left than that afforded by a brace of guinea-fowl. They present such a fine bold outline as they rise with a thunder of wings from the melon patch or millet field; but although easily killed, there is no nimbler runner of his size and weight, and if winged he will often succeed in evading capture even by the skilful, fleet-footed native. In addition to the francolins mentioned as occurring in the higher regions, we also find the crested variety (*F. sephæna*), Shelley's, and Humboldt's. On some parts of the lower river I have seen a specimen of what I believe to have been the double-banded Sand Grouse; but, if my supposition was correct, this is the only member present of the Pterocletes.

Coming to the Sturnidæ family of the Passeres, with its exquisite jewel-plumaged varieties, we find Verreaux's Glossy Starling, the green-winged Glossy Starling, and Meve's. All these birds are so wonderful in the iridescent sheen of their brilliant polychromatic feathers as to render it difficult to

afford the reader any adequate basis of comparison. The Red-winged Starling (*Amydrus moris*) has been reported, but I have never seen one. Another member of this family, the Red-billed Oxpecker (*Buphaga*), serves a useful purpose by removing blood-sucking parasites from inaccessible portions of the bodies of the larger mammals.

To the same order of the Passeres belong fully sixteen different families of weaver birds, from the striking, black-headed Hypantornis to the bright chrome-yellow variety whose nests fringe the overhanging bushes on the Zambezi, and depend from the stiff fronds of the bordering Borassus palms. Another lovely example is the bright, verditer-blue and chestnut Weaver Finch (*Pytelia*), as also the yellow-winged *Sitagra*. There are likewise spot-headed weavers, red-headed weavers, buffalo and thick-billed weavers, and doubtless many more still of which we are ignorant.

In addition to the black-tailed Widow-bird, to which I have already made some reference, there are altogether about nine more varieties, which include the red-collared (*Coliopasser ardens*), the pin-tailed, the paradise, the purple, the white-winged, the red-shouldered Urobrachya, and others. Of waxbills, bishop birds, and finches there are literally scores, whilst any adequate description of the multitudes of larks, buntings, seed-eaters, siskins, pipits, wag-tails, and creepers would fill the remainder of this book and exhaust the patience of my readers at one and the same time.

Among the Nectariniidæ there are at least nine kinds of sunbirds, so indescribably lovely in the

jewel-like sheen of their exquisite rainbow-hued colouring as to resemble large humming birds. Of these probably the most amazingly vivid is the Coppery Sunbird (*Cinnyris cupreus*), to which, as to the malachite (*Nectarina*), the scarlet-chested (*C. gutturalis*), and Bradshaw's, no description in words could possibly do justice.

Of Oreoles there are, I believe, three: Anderson's (*Oriolus notatus*), the black-headed (*O. larvatus*), and the African Golden Galbula.

Among the Laniidæ, about ten different families of shrikes inhabit the region of Zambezia, of which the Zambezi green variety (*Nicator gularis*) and the Helmet Shrike (*Sigmodus retzii*) are the best known. These birds frequent the forest country, and are, so far as I am aware, but sparsely represented in the high, mountainous uplands.

Of the many varieties of warblers and chats, it would be impossible to give a detailed description, whilst of thrushes, that known as Peters' Thrush is probably the best represented. A nightingale (*Erithacus philomela*), but little, if in any respect, differing from the European variety, is heard by night, and brings back to me as I write many recollections of tranquil evenings spent either on the shade-deck of a Zambezi steamer, or on the verandahs of houses of hospitable friends, whilst the night turned from after-dinner darkness to later moonlight, and the shrilling of the crickets was heard in the grass.

The European Swallow, the White-throated, Pearl-breasted, Wire-tailed, Larger Stripe-breasted, Monteiro's, and the Eastern Rough-winged, are

among the Hirundinidæ which have been identified, together with the South African and the Banded Sand Martins. These, with the Palm and Reichenow's Spine-tail Swifts, are too well known to need description.

Nightjars are common throughout the country, those occurring being the *Caprimulgus fossii*, or Mozambique variety.

It has been, I am aware, the practice to insist upon what some observers have permitted themselves to describe as the near relationship existing between such assemblages of birds as those included in the orders of the Alcedinidæ, Meropidæ, and Coraciidæ, better known as the kingfishers, bee-eaters, and rollers. Now, although such a statement may lay me open to charges of inexcusable ignorance of my subject, I must confess I have never been able wholly to follow or accept the motives which have led to the grouping of these varieties. If the three separate families which I have just named be regarded as closely allied from the mere circumstance of the common possession of a foot so formed as to constitute the sole apparent link of relationship, why not add to their number the members of the Burcerotidæ or hornbills, which, without question, possess feet of a character which should similarly qualify them for inclusion in the wide family of the Syndactyla.

Woodpeckers, though numerous, are, I believe, the representatives of only two varieties, Hartlaub's Cardinal and the Bearded Woodpecker. Smith's (*Campothera smithi*) is said to occur in some parts of the more densely forested country, but I have

not yet seen a specimen, or received very satisfactory evidence of this bird's presence.

Then there come the cuckoos, among which we have the European (*Cuculus canorus*), the Didric, Red-chested, Black and Grey, the loud-voiced Burchell's (*Centropus burchelli*), and the variety known as Klaas' Cuckoo. Without these birds, especially the Centropus, Africa would lose an immensely cheering influence. In my recollection of journeys in the interior, the memory of the call of the last-named connects itself irresistibly with a sweltering afternoon sun, the sweet, dry smell of heated grasses, and a heat radiation which lent a trying, tremulous movement to all distant surrounding objects. Then from some neighbouring clump of bush would come pealing forth the sweet, bell-like call of the Centropus Cuckoo, descending the scale for seven or eight notes a semi-tone at a time, to be answered probably by some distant acquaintance in complete accord with the sentiments he expressed, and couched in precisely similar terms. They are handsome birds with their dusky heads, yellowish white breasts, and pale cinnamon wing feathers. I understand that their bullying, domineering habits render them extremely unpleasant neighbours to the smaller members of the bird creation.

Smith's Grey Lourie and the purple - crested variety are the principal members of the Muscophagidæ. Livingstone's Lourie is alleged to exist, but I do not think conclusive proof of its presence north of Southern Rhodesia is forthcoming. These birds, though possessed of attractive plumage, and,

in some cases, even brilliant colouring, are clumsy, useless, ungraceful creatures, whose mission in life is to lie in wait for you when you are looking for guinea-fowl and partridges, for the express purpose of flushing with all the fuss and bustle of an immature pheasant, simply for the absurd object of needlessly bringing your gun to your shoulder.

Owls are a great feature. I imagine there must be fully six different varieties. To begin with, suppose yourself picking your cautious way through a piece of dark forest, the heavy shadows of the dense foliage gathered into a dim twilight. You suddenly look upward to the fork of some moss-grown tree, and a thrill runs down your spine at the sight of a large, apparently semi-human face glaring down upon you with an expression of angry indignation. This is the Eagle-Owl (*Bubo lactus*), probably the largest of all. If you approach him still closer, he will spread his great wings and sail away, noiselessly flitting before you like some eerie forest phantom until he gets well out of sight, when his horrible cry, which has been compared to the last wail of a man in mortal agony, will come echoing through the woods to give you one parting farewell shudder. Another variety, somewhat smaller in size, is the Spotted Eagle-Owl, whilst, in addition, the hooting Barn Owl, in all respects similar to the British bird, is found, together with Pel's Fishing Owl, and a barred variety (*Glaucidium capense*).

It is a great pity that South Central Africa should be so neglected by the parrots. It is true

that in some of the East African ports specimens of the well-known grey bird may be purchased, but, so far as our present information goes, this bird is apparently a West African species, and seldom if ever seen east of the Congo forest country, those mentioned as found in captivity on the east coast having almost certainly been conveyed overland from one side of the country to the other. I do not think the statement is justified that these birds are never found so far to the eastward as Lake Tanganyika. Some writers have hazarded the definite statement that they are wholly absent on that lake, but, on the other hand, travellers have assured me to the contrary, and I look upon the distribution of the grey parrot as by no means definitely and correctly ascertained even yet.

In Zambezia we have the so-called Nyasaland Love-bird (*Agapornis*), Meyer's Parrot, and the brown-headed Poicephalus. These birds may often be seen in the evening, and are readily distinguished by their flight, not unlike that of a teal, by their curious strident whistle, and by the circumstance that they almost invariably fly in pairs.

That singular type the Mozambique Nightjar (*Caprimulgus fossii*), which rises noiselessly from almost under your feet in the daytime, and flits away for a few yards to quickly alight again, possesses a colour scheme which harmonises so perfectly with the ground that it is extremely difficult to detect. I have seen no trace of the more northerly standard-wing variety (*Cosmetornis*), which occurs in Nyasaland, and is distinguished from the first-named by the singular elongation of one of the

wing feathers, which floats streamer-like behind as it flies.

The Columbæ are everywhere, and consist of two large pigeons, a green and a speckled variety, and of at least four doves. These beautiful, graceful birds in one form or another are with you throughout the African day. They awaken you at dawn with their pleasant cooing, usually on the way back from the morning drink, and before they hie them to the native millet gardens, where it must be confessed they do a good deal of damage. It has been stated that the large Stock Dove (*Columba phæonota*) confines itself to high altitudes, but this is inaccurate, as I have shot this shy variety in the forests of Shupanga on a level with the River Zambezi. He is a splendid creature, considerably larger than the English wood pigeon, with very distinct speckles on his pinky-grey plumage. There are, in every part of the country, multitudes of pretty ring doves, and a very small fruit-eating pigeon, whose wing covers of vivid green flash past you like jewels when he is in the air. His prevailing colours are hard to give an idea of, but alternate between bright sea-green and vivid golden bronze. His black wing feathers are edged with dark yellow.

Mention must not be overlooked of that cheerful omnipresent passerine the ubiquitous Scapulated Crow. He is everywhere, and almost as full of diablerie as Mark Twain's Blue Jay. The black plumage which this bird shares with all the members of his order is greatly relieved by the white collar of feathers which surrounds his neck. His cawing

is, I think, somewhat more vociferous than the more tranquil sound of his English relative, but otherwise goes far to recall it. He is easily tamed, and a most diverting creature to possess in the back premises. Many years ago, when I was serving at Quelimane, I possessed one of these birds, which formed a sincere attachment for a fox terrier, somewhat infirm of temper, which belonged to the house. When the servants placed the dog's meal in the accustomed place, the crow was assuredly watching with an appreciative twinkle in his bright, black, beady eye. What ensued was an almost daily occurrence. The terrier, running somewhat to flesh, would cross the terrace leisurely to enjoy his repast, casting around him a glance of misgiving as he sought the whereabouts of his daily tormentor. Suddenly there would be a rush of wings, a hoarse, triumphant croak, and an exasperated yelp, as the winged thief, after waiting until his four-footed friend was quite close at hand, would swoop down and secure in an instant the most succulent morsel.

In addition to the foregoing common variety, there is a large raven which is rarely met with on the lower plain. This fine bird is of deep, glossy blue-black, and much larger than his British congener. These, and another form which I have not yet encountered, and concerning which there appears to be still some doubt, are, it would seem, the only passerines represented.

All over the southern half of the continent the beautiful Crested Crane (*Balearica*) is found, sometimes in large flocks. In Cheringoma I have

seen considerable numbers together on the vast plains bordering the Urema River, and again in the low country south of Luabo. I have possessed several, and can imagine no more charming ornament for the grounds of a country house. Standing nearly four feet in height, this majestic creature's prevailing hue is of pale French grey on back and breast, darkening to a dull purple at the tail and wing extremities. The wing covers and the inner wing feathers are snowy white, whilst the eyes, in which there is a perpetual expression of ill-used astonishment, are set in a white cheek surmounted by a round greenish tuft terminating in a semicircular aureole of spiky feathers running from front to back. They are not only ornamental, but most useful in a large garden, effectually ridding it of all insect pests. Their tameness is quite extraordinary, as is the singular and touching attachment they form to any place to which they may grow accustomed, whilst their curious dances are difficult to behold unmoved. In this respect they share the inexplicable habit of the huge Marabou (*Leptoptilus*), and are addicted to fits of sudden unaccountable posture-making, in the course of which they spread their wings as though for flight, and execute a number of more or less intricate steps, bobbing, curtseying, and sweeping round in circles, with all the grace and precision of a practised dancer. A pair of these birds which dwelt in my gardens at Quelimane were a source of continual amusement to me, and if I could avoid it I never missed the spectacle of the struggle between them and the small boy

who was nightly charged with the task of conducting them to their sleeping place. The birds appeared to enjoy the fun as much as I did, for the skill with which in turn they made their guardian pursue them without drawing a step nearer to the roosting place might have been the result of a prearranged plot between them.

That immense, hideous, dingy offal-eater, the bald-headed Marabou Stork (*Leptoptilus crumeniferus*), appears all over the lower country, consorting with vultures and eagles and other birds of prey. He is the largest, as he is the most repulsive, of all the Ciconiidae, and his sole claim to consideration consists in the exquisite white plumes which he carries beneath the long, coarse, slaty grey feathers of his usually bedraggled tail. These are so beautiful as, in my opinion, to entirely surpass (in delicacy at least) the larger feathers of the Cape Ostrich. The Marabou is a shy bird, and must usually be shot with a rifle; the few specimens which I have secured were obtained by means of a .303. It seems to me that a shot-gun would be almost as useless against this creature's armour-like plumage and massive bones as it would be against an ostrich.

Whilst dealing with this natural division, mention must be made of that wonderful representative the rare Saddle-billed Stork (*Mycteria*). Here we have beauty and bizarrerie inextricably blended, grace and *gaucherie* curiously united. The Saddle-billed Stork always appears in company with his mate, and is of the purest white on breast, back, and belly; the extremities of wing and tail are

apparently jet-black ; the head, throat, and wing covers are of vivid bronzy green, whilst the forehead and beak are banded yellowish white, black, and vivid crimson. He stands about three feet high, and is an altogether striking and attractive personality.

The marsh and river, which are, of course, the favourite feeding and resting places for all three of the last-named varieties, possess quite a feathered world of their own. Here you may see the Great White Stork consorting on terms of perfect amity with the Great Purple, the Grey, and the Goliath Herons ; the Black-headed and Rufous-bellied Herons are also present, surrounded by four different kinds of snowy Egrets, and two or three varieties of Bittern. On the river estuaries Flamingoes turn whole acres of unsightly mudbanks into so many expanses of sun-dancing pink. Along the edge of the water, upon which Spur-winged and Knob-nosed Geese are resting among multitudes of duck, teal, widgeon, and sheldrake, multitudes of shore-birds run hither and thither ; wattled plover and grey-speckled water dikkops are found in company with white-fronted sand plovers. Black-winged stints and avocets pursue their prey with redshanks, greenshanks, sandpipers, and wag-tails. Near the coast a fine Curlew (*Numenius*) mixes with maybirds, whimbrels, and sanderlings, whilst both the Ethiopian and the Painted Snipe are extremely numerous in the marshes which lie a little way back from the river. The Spur-winged Plover (*Lobivanellus albiceps*) is another curious form which during some periods of the

year obtains its sustenance in the midst of the driest plains, just as at others he is a sure find on the banks of our rivers. He has been called the "Crocodile's Friend," as explained in a previous chapter, not only because of his friendly warning to the slumbering saurian of the approach of any hostile influence, but also from the useful and kindly services which during sleep he is said to perform, in removing from between the crocodile's teeth such morsels of his diet as may have lodged between them. I have heard this statement as often made as contradicted, but whether true or not it is not one which is distinguished by any particular superfluity of attractiveness.

In addition to the birds hereinbefore enumerated, there are many more which I have perforce overlooked from considerations of space, and doubtless more still whose classification in the ornithological groups of contemporary scientists is as yet unaccomplished; but I fancy I have written sufficient to assure those of my readers in whose minds doubt may have been awakened as to the existence of a very diversified local Avi-fauna, that Zambezia, among other African regions, possesses no mean claims to consideration, and merits closer examination.

In the portion of South-East Africa which gives its name to this book, one's admiration constantly goes out to the many families of beautiful butterflies spread throughout the length and breadth of the land. Some of these appear singly, as in the better watered localities, where their thirst is easily

quenched ; others may be seen in groups and clusters like some bright-coloured flower-bed, absorbing the moisture from the ground where your path leads you through wet, marshy hollows. I have seen square yards of tremulous-winged sulphur or agitated mauve where the pretty short-lived insects, regardless of my presence, unrolled and eagerly plied their watchspring-like trunks in sucking in the precious fluid that damped the surface.

A common form, perhaps the most common of all, is a very beautifully, if somewhat soberly, marked, or perhaps it would be better to say “ protectively ” marked, grey variety. This insect is found sunning itself in the path, the centre of the native village, or fluttering round the impedimenta outside the tent. When at rest on the ground, were it not for the movement of its wings, it would be practically indistinguishable from its surroundings. Another large common variety is the rapid-flying, tailed *Papilio*, of dull red, covered with green spots and stripes. This form is found in every part of Africa which I have as yet visited. Large white butterflies, and others of similar size and pale yellow, are daily visitors to such patches of flowering plants as your garden may possess ; whilst in the forest country of the interior magnificent specimens may be seen flitting in and out of the blossoming papilionaceous trees and sweet-scented baphias. One royal purple insect of large size with yellow spots is frequently seen, as also a bright crimson *Tyndaræus*, which, like many of the varieties whose sustenance is derived from the

blossoms of the high forest trees, seldom descend to low levels.

Moths are extremely numerous and very troublesome. I never hear them mentioned without my mind instantly conjuring up a really trying, fluffy, white variety, which, should you be under canvas, or taking your dinner on the shade-deck of a river steamer, makes a point of coming and plunging eagerly into your soup or your wine, and leaving on the surface, after it has been fished out, an unattractive, white, dusty scum from its thickly covered wings. The caterpillars of this moth, for those who care for such creatures, are very gorgeously coloured. I am not sure whether this is one of the species, of which there are several, covered with tiny spines, making them very disagreeable to handle, and which have the same properties as those of the fiendish *Mucuna* bean described in a previous chapter, and set up an irritation which is hard to bear. They are, I consider, for this and other reasons, best left severely alone.

The Ant is such a curse as to deserve an entire paragraph to himself. First and foremost comes the blind white Termite, commonly known as the "White Ant," whose curiously shaped hillocks, often reaching a height of fifteen feet or more, are seen all over this part of Africa. When once this pest enters your house, you may consider that lamentation and woe are upon you. Their activity is extraordinary, and nothing is safe from them. Clothing, wooden furniture, saddlery, leather trunks, anything not of metal becomes literally scored and

often eaten completely through by them, and the sole means of securing clothing in a country where they abound consists in keeping it in air-tight, steel uniform cases, or tin trunks. The White Ant presents itself in its most serious aspect, however, when it directs its efficient destructive energies against the timbers in the roof of your dwelling. These it will hollow out, leaving only the shell remaining, and often a cursory glance at this would not reveal the havoc wrought, or hint at the imminence of the coming catastrophe. They dislike light, and as they make their way up the wall or across the flooring, hide themselves under a tiny tunnel of red earth. They dislike sandy localities, doubtless finding the soil too friable to unite and form the covering so indispensable to their movements. The only remedy I know of is a liberal application of paraffin; but should the insects have fairly established themselves, your efforts to exterminate them will be fruitless until you succeed in discovering the queen ant. A terrible large red variety builds its nest in a shrub. A singular structure this is, about the size of a small football, and made of large leaves stuck together with some mysterious, glutinous compound, of which the seething masses of ants inside alone know the secret. The bite of this frightful creature is terribly painful. Another variety called the *Ponera* is often avenged after death by the disgusting smell with which it surrounds you when you crush it. Then come the black "Warrior" ants, which move from place to place in a thick, black mass, like a long, living cable. The numbers which take part in

these migrations will be to some extent appreciated when I explain that this procession, which marches some ten or twelve abreast, between stationary double lines apparently of spectators three or four deep, is often twenty or thirty yards or more in length. Woe betide the tent, house, or other habitation which may oppose the line of march ; it is immediately overrun, and everything eatable (and little comes amiss to the "Warrior") disappears as though by magic. Should you be abed, you will disappear also—through the door, tearing off your clothing, desperately intent on removing the murderous, apparently red-hot mandibles buried torturingly in your tender skin. I have been informed by credible sufferers that the "Warriors" do not bite you immediately they come in contact with your person ; they wait until you are almost covered with them, when an ant of high rank, an Adjutant-General, or somebody of that kind, gives a signal, whereupon they all bite together—and you awake. I have noticed in the forest country another immense ant of dull, dingy black, fully an inch in length. He belongs to a solitary variety, and I do not think is particularly malevolent in his mode of life. There are also many other ants common to this part of Africa, some so minute that you only begin to notice them when you find them assembled in countless thousands in your sugar-bowl or jam-pot. Another cross to bear in its season is the winged variety, which in the early rains, and usually early in the evening, comes forth from some secret hiding place and streams in through the window, surrounding your lamps in

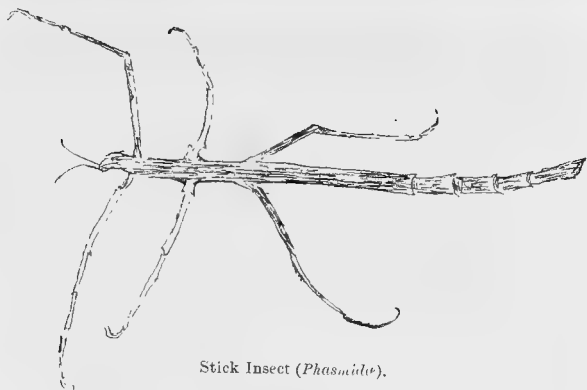
swirling clouds. As soon as they touch the glass or shade, however, so badly are they put together, they at once shed their wings, and run helplessly about, to be ignominiously swept into the dust-pan and carried away.

Beetles of many kinds abound, from the immense variety the size of a well-proportioned mouse which occurs in the forests and lays its eggs in elephants' dung, to the tiny, lustrous, aniline green copra-beetle which is a devourer of the product of the coconut palm and—other things. Then that disgusting form the Cockroach. If you should come dispassionately to reflect on the *raison d'être* of many of these futile forms of the lower insect world, you are forced sadly to the conclusion that they are nothing more nor less than a blot upon the creation. Particularly so is this the case with the noisome, loathly Cockroach, which has formed such an attachment to man that he has said in effect, "Where thou buildest thine abode, there shall be mine also. I will eat of thy bread, and of everything else that is thine for ever." And he has kept his word. I speak with a full sense of my responsibilities when I say I have never known a house in this part of Africa from which this creature could be excluded. It is true that modern mosquito-proofing keeps out the horrible insect during its flying stage—that period when life was one long martyrdom, and you heard every few moments as you sat at dinner the flop of some two-inch foetid monster as it alighted on the table before you, or on the nape of your neck behind. I have seen ladies hurriedly leave the table to stamp

wildly on the floor outside. I have seen strong men turn pale as they rushed from the room, one hand clutching nervously at the breast or shoulder of the snow-white dinner jacket to hold prisoner for a season that which was beneath. All this we owe to the cockroach, even as we owe our scarified book-bindings, gumless envelopes, ruined starched things and tainted food. Could there be anything more mischievous, more malicious, than this malodorous quintessence of foulness?

I must confess that, try as I may, I cannot awaken to that condition of mind which professes to see strange beauties and graces in the insect abominations with which poor Africa is so richly, so undeservedly endowed. In the early weeks of the rains or summer season the land teems with myriads of these creatures, which, with youth on their side, and the natural yearning for the commission of sins so unfailingly a characteristic of that bright period, make life to humanity one long, painful purgatory, ruinous to patience and temper alike.

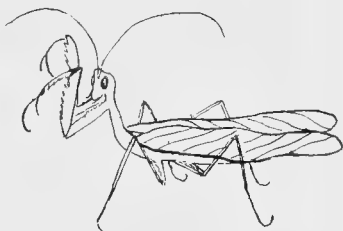
Take for example the Mosquito. I do not know, neither does it much matter, how many varieties of this murderous gnat there may be. I seem to have seen fully a dozen or more. These leave you no peace from the moment they secure ingress to your habitation, either by night or day. Then think of the countless blood-sucking forms of other kinds, the *Diptera*, *Glossinæ*, *Leptidæ*, *Muscidæ*, and several others, to say nothing of wingless blood-suckers such as the Ticks. The present known forms obtaining a living by this



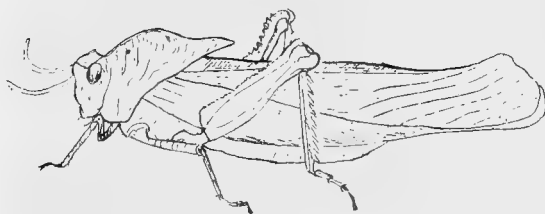
Stick Insect (*Phasmidae*).



Immature Locust.



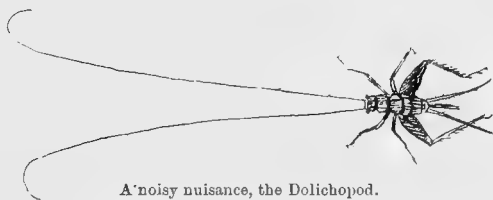
Mantis.



Locust about one-half size.



Tree cicad.



A noisy nuisance, the Dolichopod.

SOME INSECT PESTS.

horrible means are grouped under one genus and called the Ceratopogon, and comprise ONE HUNDRED AND ELEVEN described species. The sucking habit, misogynists will learn with satisfaction, is almost universally confined to the females. As a rule, the larvæ of the naked-winged forms of this genus are aquatic, being laid in star-shaped clusters of algæ containing from one hundred to one hundred and fifty eggs. The larvæ of these species are worm-like creatures which lie always on the surface of the water. No prolegs appear on the prothoracic segment, and they wriggle through the water like minute eels. The pupa is shorter than the larva, possesses conspicuous respiratory horns on the thorax, is brownish in colour, and also remains on the surface. If, therefore, care be taken to remove stagnant water from the vicinity of the dwelling-house, and sprinkle paraffin into the tanks and uncovered water receptacles, much may be done to decrease the appalling pest which mosquitoes and their numerous allied forms constitute to dwellers in tropical Africa.

Then there are those dreadful forms of *Glossina* the Tse-tse fly (*G. morsitans*), and the *G. palpalis*, to which latter has been traced the germ of the dreaded sleeping-sickness now, it is said, gradually approaching Lake Nyasa from the northward. In the former type, the life history differs greatly from that of nearly all the varieties of the Muscidæ; thus, instead of depositing its eggs in horse or cow dung, the female Tse-tse produces one single larva at a time, which is nourished in the oviduct of the mother until full-grown. On extrusion it turns at

once into a pupa. It has been said that the Tse-tse fly is not found far away from game, preferably buffaloes, but on this erroneous idea I shall have more to say in my chapter dealing with the Zoology of Zambezia. It would, I have thought, be interesting as an experiment to determine how far the venom of their bite may be varied or lessened by the change of diet produced by the disappearance of the buffalo from some of their haunts. Fortunately the other form (*G. palpalis*) has not yet, I believe, been reported. The Tse-tse is a small, smoky-brown insect, not unlike the common domestic variety, and, speaking from memory, rather less than half an inch long; but a striking indication of its identity is afforded by the wings, which, in the position of rest, close one over the other like the blades of a pair of scissors. Their destructive effect on horses, cattle, dogs, and in fact all domestic animals, is most remarkable; donkeys appear to suffer but little, however, less indeed than mules, whilst the human animal is only temporarily inconvenienced by the momentary inflammation which the venom of their puncture induces. The Tse-tse is not active by night, and thus after sunset horses and cattle may be removed from one place to another in comparative safety.

Large horse-flies and gad-flies are numerous in the summer, and inflict painful punctures.

Among the Mantidæ, one very large praying Mantis, of bright transparent green, is often observed. There are several varieties, of which the one mentioned is perhaps the commonest. He is a barbarous creature, catching and devouring flies and

other insects much as a small boy devours apples, in a succession of bites.

Bees, wasps, and hornets are very well represented, especially the latter, which build their mud cells on the moulding of your ceilings, on the backs of pictures, in the folds of curtains, and elsewhere. Some of these insects are exceedingly venomous, and are armed with a sting whose application is not soon forgotten. One variety, of deep black with bright yellow legs, in the course of the formation of the cells of his nest fills them with the corpses of spiders, and other grubs, for the support of its young, which thus enjoys its first meal before pushing its way out of the place of its deposit.

Venomous spiders, scorpions, and centipedes are quite numerous ; I am happy to say, however, that they are usually too startled by their contact with humanity to have much aggressive disposition left, and lose no time in getting out of the way.

Locusts and grasshoppers are also with us, as many varieties of cricket. The first-named at times appear in immense devastating swarms which lay the country bare for miles, and do often irreparable damage.

Although in the foregoing I have only succeeded in giving the faintest and most inadequate idea of the teeming insect life of the Zambezi Valley, for the scant justice I have done this wide subject there is an excellent reason, namely, my intense and bitter hatred of the greater number of the members of this branch of natural science. If we except the exquisitely coloured varieties of Zambezian butterflies (some of these even losing

much of one's admiration for them by reason of the foulness of their diet), I do not know of one single family of the insect genera that I would not cheerfully see blotted out for ever. Were this possible, life in the tropics, at present so precarious, would lose half its dangers and three-fourths of its inconveniences, and man, the expressly appointed overlord of creation, would feel that at last his position was moderately tenable.

In all the course of the Zambezi and its numerous tributaries, the Crocodile, that veritable curse of most African waterways, is found in large numbers, and often attains to great size. Their numbers are accounted for by the quantity of eggs deposited by the female, amounting sometimes, it is said, to sixty or seventy. These hatched in a sand-bank by the heat of the sun's rays, the young immediately take to water. The Crocodile of the Zambezi is the nilotic variety, possesses thirty-four teeth in each jaw, and these being hollow, are renewed periodically by others contained within them. As they develop to full size, they push out the teeth within which they grew, to be in turn displaced at a later stage of the reptile's career. From this peculiarity it has been inferred that the crocodile may be the longest-lived member of the creation. I have never seen one of these creatures which measured more than 17 or 18 feet in length, although that has been reported to have been greatly exceeded. In the males four glands of musk are secreted, one on each side beneath the jaws, and one on either side in the region of the

groin. The glands are about the size of a small olive, and their scent remarkably strong. In some parts of the country it is believed that the powerful odour of the male has a desirable effect in attracting the female to him. The fore-feet of a crocodile resemble a human hand, and are armed with claws measuring two or three inches in length, which are doubtless employed for holding their ghastly food, whilst it is mangled and torn with the teeth. The general supposition that the crocodile disposes of his victim like a snake by immediately swallowing it is quite erroneous, the practice being to drag the prey at once under water, drown it, and then hide it away under a shelving bank or among tree-roots until it has become decomposed. It is then devoured. From the fact that the sixty-eight formidable teeth fit exactly into each other like those of a rat-trap with a slight backward rake, and also that when once he fixes on his prey the crocodile scarcely ever relaxes his hold, it will be readily understood that, once their terrific jaws have closed, escape, except by miracle, is practically hopeless. I have seen natives taken by crocodiles, once on the Shiré River, and once on the Zambezi, and the suddenness of the catastrophe precluded all attempt at help or rescue. In one case the man taken, with that amazing carelessness of which natives are so constantly guilty, was standing in the shallows, not much more than ankle-deep, washing at sunset, and not more than fifty yards away from the verandah of the house in which I was staying. I turned to address some remark to my host, and looked back towards the river just in time to hear

a piteous scream of terror and see a commotion in the deep water a few yards from where the native had been standing. It was such as might have been produced by some monstrous fish swimming at great speed towards mid-stream, when it gradually died away. That was all. Cases have also occurred of people being hurled off their feet and taken, even though standing some feet away from the water. There is a sudden, lightning-like rush, a shriek, a momentary splash, and—silence. I have killed scores of these horrible monsters, and whilst I can spare a cartridge I will never lose an opportunity of killing them, and I beg all of my readers, or such of them as may by chance find themselves in crocodile-haunted waters, to earn the blessings of the natives by forming the same resolution.

Of poisonous serpents Zambezia does not possess many varieties. There are two Mambas, the black and green ; a tree-cobra, probably the *Dendraspis* ; several vipers, the common puff-adder, and one or two more snakes whose venom is doubtful. The first-mentioned are without doubt an African variation of that dreaded snake the Indian cobra, and, so far as the black variety is concerned, equally deadly. Personally I have never seen or heard of a casualty occurring which was attributable to this reptile throughout my service in Africa ; but in the fatal cases recorded, his bite has usually caused death in about twenty minutes. This creature has also the power of projecting its venom for some distance. A friend of mine in South Africa, who witnessed an instance of this

rare faculty, informed me that the mamba spat out the poison in a long jet, as though it had issued from a fine yet powerful syringe. There is yet another snake in this part of Africa which has the same power, but of whose correct name I am uncertain. Going back to the mambas, however, I am aware of several cases in which these reptiles have administered serious nervous shocks to unoffending mortals, as in the case of a lovable old mission lady in Nyasaland, who turned down the sheets preparatory to getting into bed to disclose the unlooked-for spectacle of a coiled mamba occupying the exact position which should have been hers. But, as I have stated, actual casualties attributable to them are few. They create a good deal of havoc among live stock, and during the breeding-season are exceedingly fierce, attacking passers-by, it is said, without provocation. The tree-cobra is also greatly dreaded by the natives, as, indeed, are snakes of all kinds. I have seen in the Barué very large puff-adders, some quite a yard in length. They are exceedingly venomous, although, unlike the mambas in this respect, recoveries from their bites are by no means uncommon. I remember many years ago hearing a description of a snake in Nyasaland which, so far as I am aware, still remains unclassified. This monster, stated to be some six or eight feet long, of disproportionate thickness, and gorgeous colouring, was a tree-dweller, and reputed to possess the singular feature of a red comb on its head, together with the wholly unreptile-like power of uttering a strident call. Had my inform-

ant been any other than a minister of the gospel, I should have hesitated to place myself in the position of one addicted to "snake stories"; but incredible as the foregoing particulars may appear, the fact remains that the natives of the adjacent regions were in great terror of a snake they used to describe to me in a manner which left no doubt on my mind that it was the same my clerical friend had encountered. They had also a name for the creature, which I regret I have forgotten.

Pythons are not very numerous, but in the higher elevations may sometimes be encountered in the cool moist forest, especially where rocky ravines slope down to water. I have only seen two, one of which I succeeded in shooting. They reach in some cases a length of eighteen or twenty feet.

Many very beautiful, gaily coloured lizards are common, and ply, with every encouragement, let us hope, their laudable calling of decimating various forms of insects. Chameleons are also extremely numerous, and in some cases reach a surprising size. The Great Varanus, or Iguana, is the largest of the former varieties. He is, of course, a carnivorous form, I believe the only one; but among the rest there are several in which smalt-blue and crimson, bright yellow, green, and steel-grey are the distinguishing colours, and their general appearance is at times startlingly gorgeous.

Among the *Cinyxes*, both land and river tortoises are included; the latter, the soft-skinned type, being very spiteful, and almost dangerous to handle by reason of the fierceness of their bite.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER VIII

ZAMBEZIAN AVI-FAUNA

CORVIDÆ

<i>Corvultur albicollis</i>	.	.	White-necked Raven
<i>Corvus scapulatus</i>	.	.	Pied Crow
<i>C. capensis</i>	.	.	Black Crow

STURNIDÆ

<i>Creatophora carunculata</i>	.	Wattled Starling
<i>Lamprotornis mevesi</i>	.	Meve's Glossy Starling
<i>Lamprocolius chloropterus</i>	.	Green-winged Glossy Starling
<i>Cinnyricinclus leucogaster</i>		
<i>verreauxi</i>	.	Verreaux's Glossy Starling

ORIOIDÆ

<i>Oriolus auratus</i>	.	African Golden Oriole
<i>O. larvatus</i>	.	Black-headed Oriole

PLOCEIDÆ

<i>Hyphantornis nigriceps</i>	.	Black-headed Weaver-bird
<i>H. cabanisi</i>	.	Cabani's Weaver-bird
<i>H. spilonotus</i>	.	Spotted-backed Weaver-bird
<i>H. auricapillus</i>	.	Shelley's Weaver-bird
<i>Sitagra ocularis</i>	.	Smith's Weaver-bird
<i>S. xanthoptera</i>	.	Yellow-winged Weaver-bird
<i>S. capensis olivacea</i>	.	Eastern Cape Weaver-bird
<i>Sycobrotus stictifrons</i>	.	Spot-headed Weaver-bird
<i>Amblyospiza albifrons</i>	.	Thick-billed Weaver-bird
<i>Ploceipasser pectoralis</i>	.	Stripe-chested Weaver-bird
<i>Pytelia nitidula</i>	.	Hartlaub's Red-faced Weaver-finch
<i>Lagonosticta rhodopareia</i>	.	Heuglin's Ruddy Waxbill
<i>L. niveoguttata</i>	.	Peter's Ruddy Waxbill
<i>Estrilda astrilda cavendishi</i>	.	Cavendish Waxbill
<i>E. incana</i>	.	South African Grey Waxbill
<i>E. angolensis</i>	.	Blue-breasted Waxbill

PLOCEIDÆ—*continued*

<i>Spermestes nigriceps</i> . . .	Rufous-backed Weaver-finch
<i>Quelea cardinalis</i> . . .	Cardinal Weaver
<i>Pyromelana capensis</i> ap-	
<i>proximans</i> . . .	Smaller Black - and - yellow
	Bishop-bird
<i>Urobrachya axillaris</i> . . .	Red-shouldered Widow-bird
<i>Coliopasser macrurus</i> . . .	Zambezi Widow-bird
<i>C. procne</i> . . .	Great-tailed Widow-bird
<i>C. ardens</i> . . .	Red-collared Widow-bird
<i>Vidua paradisea</i> . . .	Paradise Widow-bird
<i>Hypochera funerea</i> . . .	Black Widow-finch
<i>H. funerea nigerrima</i> . . .	Purple Widow-finch
<i>H. funerea amauroptera</i> . . .	Steel-coloured Widow-finch

FRINGILLIDÆ

<i>Petronia petronella</i> . . .	South African Rock Sparrow
<i>Serinus sharpei</i> . . .	East African Yellow Seed-eater

ALAUDIDÆ

<i>Mirafrā africana</i> . . .	Rufous-naped Lark
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MOTACILLIDÆ

<i>Macronyx croceus</i> . . .	Yellow-throated Long-claw
<i>M. ameliæ</i> . . .	Pink-throated Long-claw
<i>Anthus pyrrhonotus</i> . . .	Cinnamon-backed Pipit
<i>A. rufulus</i> . . .	Lesser Tawny Pipit

PROMEROPIDÆ

<i>Promerops gurneyi</i> . . .	Natal Long-tailed Sugar-bird
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NECTARINIIDÆ

<i>Nectarinia famosa</i> . . .	Malachite Sunbird
<i>Cinnyris microrhynchus</i> . . .	Short-billed Sunbird
<i>C. shelleyi</i> . . .	Shelley's Sunbird
<i>C. cupreus</i> . . .	Coppery Sunbird
<i>C. leucogaster</i> . . .	South African White-breasted
	Sunbird

NECTARINIIDÆ—*continued*

<i>C. venustus</i>	. . .	Yellow-breasted Sunbird
<i>C. gutturalis</i>	. . .	Scarlet-chested Sunbird
<i>C. amethystinus bradshawi</i>	.	Bradshaw's Sunbird
<i>C. olivaceus</i>	. . .	Olive-coloured Sunbird
<i>Anthrothreptes collaris hypodilus</i>	. . .	Zambezi Collared Sunbird

ZOSTEROPIDÆ

<i>Zosterops virens</i>	. . .	Green White-eye
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PARIDÆ

<i>Parus pallidiventris</i>	. . .	Pale-bellied Tit
<i>P. niger</i>	. . .	Black Tit
<i>P. niger xanthostomus</i>	.	Zambezi Black Tit
<i>Egithalus caroli</i>	. . .	Andersson's Penduline Tit

LANIIDÆ

<i>Lanius collaris</i>	. . .	Fiscal Shrike
<i>Nilaus brubru</i>	. . .	Brubru Shrike
<i>N. nigritemporalis</i>	. . .	Black-browed Brubru Shrike
<i>Telephonus senegalus</i>	.	Black-headed Bush-shrike
<i>T. minor</i>	. . .	Eastern Three-streaked Bush-shrike
<i>Dryoscopus mossambicus</i>	.	Mozambique Shrike
<i>Laniarius starki</i>	. . .	Southern Grey-headed Bush-shrike
<i>Nicator gularis</i>	. . .	Zambezi Green Shrike
<i>Sigmodus tricolor</i>	. . .	Zambezi Helmet-shrike
<i>Prionops talacoma</i>	. . .	Smith's Helmet-shrike

CRATEROPODIDÆ

<i>Crateropus jardinii</i>	. . .	Jardine's Babbler
<i>C. kirki</i>	. . .	Kirk's Babbler
<i>Andropadus debilis</i>	. . .	Slender Bulbul
<i>Phyllostrophus strepitans</i>	.	Reichenow's Bristle-necked Bulbul
<i>P. flavistriatus</i>	. . .	Yellow-streaked Bulbul
<i>Criniger milanensis</i>	. . .	Milanji Bulbul

SYLVIIDÆ

<i>Phylloscopus trochilus</i>	.	Willow Wren
<i>Acrocephalus palustris</i>	.	Marsh Warbler
<i>A. beticatus</i>	. . .	African Reed Warbler
<i>A. schenobenus</i>	. . .	Sedge Warbler
<i>Locustella fluviatilis</i>	. . .	River Grasshopper Warbler
<i>Bradypterus brachypterus</i>	.	Stripe-throated Reed Warbler
<i>B. babecula</i>	. . .	Babbling Reed Warbler
<i>Eremomela helenore</i>	. . .	Zambezi Bush Warbler
<i>Camaroptera olivacea</i>	.	Green-backed Bush Warbler
<i>C. brevicaudata</i>	. . .	Buppell's Bush Warbler
<i>Sylviella pallida</i>	. . .	Zambezi Crombec
<i>Cryptolopha ruficapilla</i>	.	Yellow - throated Fly - catcher Warbler
<i>Chlorodyta neglecta</i>	. . .	Eastern Black-breasted Bush Warbler
<i>Cisticola erythrops</i>	. . .	Rufous-fronted Grass Warbler
<i>C. rufa</i>	. . .	Fraser's Grass Warbler
<i>C. terestris</i>	. . .	Wren Grass Warbler
<i>C. chiniana</i>	. . .	Eastern Grey-backed Grass Warbler
<i>C. lugubris</i>	. . .	Buff-fronted Grass Warbler
<i>C. natalensis</i>	. . .	Natal Grass Warbler
<i>C. muelleri</i>	. . .	Muller's Grass Warbler

TURDIDÆ

<i>Turdus libonianus tropi-</i>		
<i>calis</i>	. . .	Peters' Thrush
<i>Erithacus philomela</i>	. . .	The Eastern Nightingale
<i>Myrmecocichla formicivora</i>	.	Ant-eating Chat
<i>Pratincola torquata</i>	. . .	South African Stone Chat
<i>Saxicola pileata livingstonii</i>	.	Livingstone's Wheatear
<i>S. enanthe</i>	. . .	European Wheatear
<i>S. falkensteini</i>	. . .	Falkenstein's Chat
<i>Cossypha bicolor</i>	. . .	Noisy Robin Chat
<i>C. natalensis</i>	. . .	Natal Robin Chat
<i>C. humeralis</i>	. . .	White-shouldered Robin Chat
<i>Cichladusa arcuata</i>	. . .	Morning Warbler

TURDIDÆ—*continued*

<i>Erythropygia zambesiana</i>	.	.	Zambezi Ground Robin
<i>E. leucophrys</i>	.	.	White-browed Ground Robin
<i>E. quadrivirgata</i>	.	.	Rufous-breasted Ground Robin

MUSCICAPIDÆ

<i>Bradyornis grisea</i>	.	.	East African Flycatcher
<i>Musicapa grisola</i>	.	.	Spotted Flycatcher
<i>Bias musicus</i>	.	.	Black-and-white Flycatcher
<i>Platystira peltata</i>	.	.	Green-throated Flycatcher
<i>Pachyprora molitor</i>	.	.	White-franked Flycatcher
<i>Erythrocercus livingstonii</i>	.	.	Livingstone's Flycatcher

CAMPOPHAGIDÆ

<i>Campophaga nigra</i>	.	.	Black Cuckoo Shrike
<i>C. hartlaubi</i>	.	.	Hartlaub's Cuckoo Shrike
<i>Graucalus pectoralis</i>	.	.	Black-chested Cuckoo Shrike

HIRUNDINIDÆ

<i>Cotile paludicola</i>	.	.	South African Sand Martin
<i>C. cincta</i>	.	.	Banded Sand Martin
<i>Hirundo rustica</i>	.	.	European Swallow
<i>H. albigularis</i>	.	.	White-throated Swallow
<i>H. dimidiata</i>	.	.	Pearl-breasted Swallow
<i>H. smithi</i>	.	.	Wire-tailed Swallow
<i>H. griseopyga</i>	.	.	Grey-rumped Swallow
<i>H. cucullata</i>	.	.	Larger Stripe-breasted Swallow
<i>H. montei</i>	.	.	Monteiro's Swallow
<i>Psalidoprocne orientalis</i>	.	.	Eastern Rough-winged Swallow

PITTIDÆ

<i>Pitta longipennis</i>	.	.	Central African Pitta
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UPUPIDÆ

<i>Upupa africana</i>	.	.	South African Hoopoe
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IRRISORIDÆ

<i>Irrisor erythrorhynchus</i>	.	.	East African Kakelaar
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CYPSELIDÆ

<i>Tachornis parva</i>	.	.	Palm Swift
<i>Chetura stictilema</i>	.	.	Reichenow's Spine-tail

CAPRIMULGIDÆ

<i>Caprimulgus fossii</i>	.	.	Mozambique Nightjar
<i>Cosmetornis vexillarius</i>	.	.	Standard-wing Nightjar

CORACIIDÆ

<i>Coracias garullus</i>	.	.	European Roller
<i>C. caudatus</i>	.	.	Moselikatze's Roller
<i>C. spatulatus</i>	.	.	Racquet-tailed Roller
<i>Eurystomus afer</i>	.	.	Cinnamon Roller

MEROPIDÆ

<i>Merops apiaster</i>	.	.	European Bee-eater
<i>M. persicus</i>	.	.	Blue-cheeked Bee-eater
<i>M. boehmi</i>	.	.	Bohm's Bee-eater
<i>M. nubicoides</i>	.	.	Carmine-throated Bee-eater
<i>Mellitophagus meridionalis</i>	.	.	Little Bee-eater
<i>M. bullockoides</i>	.	.	White-fronted Bee-eater

ALCEDINIDÆ

<i>Ceryle rudis</i>	.	.	Pied Kingfisher
<i>C. maxima</i>	.	.	Giant Kingfisher
<i>Corythornis cyanostigma</i>	.	.	Malachite Kingfisher
<i>Ispidina natalensis</i>	.	.	Natal Kingfisher
<i>Halcyon orientalis</i>	.	.	Peters' Kingfisher
<i>H. chelicuti</i>	.	.	Striped Kingfisher

COLIIDÆ

<i>Colius striatus minor</i>	.	.	Natal Speckled Mouse-bird
<i>C. erythromelon</i>	.	.	Red-faced Mouse-bird

BUCEROTIDÆ

<i>Bucorax cafer</i>	.	.	Brom-Vogel
<i>Bycanistes buccinator</i>	.	.	Trumpeter Hornbill
<i>B. cristatus</i>	.	.	Zambezi Trumpeter
<i>Lophoceros melanoleucus</i>	.	.	Crowned Hornbill

BUCEROTIDÆ—*continued*

<i>L. epirhinus</i>	.	.	.	South African Grey Hornbill
<i>L. erythrorhynchus</i>	.	.	.	Red-billed Hornbill
<i>L. leucomelas</i>	.	.	.	Yellow-billed Hornbill

TROGONIDÆ

<i>Hapaloderma narina</i>	.	.	Narina Trogon
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PICIDÆ

<i>Campothera smithi</i>	.	.	Smith's Woodpecker
<i>Dendropicus cardinalis</i>	.	.	Cardinal Woodpecker
<i>D. cardinalis hartlaubi</i>	.	.	Hartlaub's Cardinal Woodpecker

INDICATORIDÆ

<i>Indicator minor</i>	.	.	Lesser Honey-guide
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CAPITONIDÆ

<i>Lybius torquatus</i>	.	.	Black-collared Barbet
<i>Tricholema leucomelas</i>	.	.	Pied Barbet
<i>Stactolema leucotis</i>	.	.	White-eared Barbet
<i>Barbatula extoni</i>	.	.	Exton's Tinker-bird
<i>Trachyphonus cafer</i>	.	.	Levaillant's Barbet

CUCULIDÆ

<i>Cuculus canorus</i>	.	.	European Cuckoo
<i>C. solitarius</i>	.	.	Red-chested Cuckoo
<i>Chrysococcyx klaasi</i>	.	.	Klaas' Cuckoo
<i>C. cupreus</i>	.	.	Didric Cuckoo
<i>Coccyzus glandarius</i>	.	.	Great Spotted Cuckoo
<i>C. jacobinus</i>	.	.	Black-and-white Cuckoo
<i>C. hypopinarius</i>	.	.	Black-and-grey Cuckoo
<i>C. cafer</i>	.	.	Levaillant's Cuckoo
<i>Centropus burchelli</i>	.	.	Burchell's Coucal
<i>Ceuthmochares australis</i>	.	.	Green Coucal

MUSCOPHAGIDÆ

<i>Gallirex chlorochlamys</i>	.	Zambezi Purple-crested Lourie
<i>Schizorhis concolor</i>	.	Grey Lourie

PSITTACIDÆ

<i>Pœocephalus fuscicapillus</i>	.	.	Brown-headed Parrot
<i>P. meyeri</i>	.	.	Meyer's Parrot
<i>Agapornis liliane</i>	.	.	Nyasaland Lovebird

STIGIDÆ

<i>Strix flammea</i>	.	.	Barn Owl
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BUBONIDÆ

<i>Asio capensis</i>	.	.	Marsh Owl
<i>Bubo maculosus</i>	.	.	Spotted Eagle Owl
<i>B. lacteus</i>	.	.	Verreaux's Eagle Owl
<i>Scops capensis</i>	.	.	Cape Scops Owl
<i>Glaucidium capense</i>	.	.	Barred Owl
<i>Scotopelia peli</i>	.	.	Pel's Fishing Owl

FALCONIDÆ

<i>Falco biarmicus</i>	.	.	South African Lanner
<i>F. ruficollis</i>	.	.	Red-necked Falcon
<i>Tinnunculus rupicolus</i>	.	.	South African Kestrel
<i>T. amurensis</i>	.	.	Eastern Red-legged Kestrel
<i>T. dickinsoni</i>	.	.	Dickinson's Kestrel
<i>Aquila wahlbergi</i>	.	.	Wahlberg's Kestrel
<i>Eutolmætus bellicosus</i>	.	.	Martial Eagle
<i>Haliæetus vocifer</i>	.	.	Sea Eagle
<i>Helotarsus ecaudatus</i>	.	.	Bateleur
<i>Circætus pectoralis</i>	.	.	Black-breasted Harrier Eagle
<i>Asturina monogrammica</i>	.	.	African Buzzard Eagle
<i>Buteo jakal</i>	.	.	Jackal Buzzard
<i>Milvus egyptius</i>	.	.	Yellow-billed Kite
<i>Elanus ceruleus</i>	.	.	Black-shouldered Kite
<i>Astur tachiro</i>	.	.	African Goshawk
<i>Melierax gabar</i>	.	.	Gabar Goshawk
<i>Circus cineraceus</i>	.	.	Montagu's Harrier
<i>C. macrurus</i>	.	.	Pale Harrier
<i>C. ranivorus</i>	.	.	South African Harrier

VULTURIDÆ

<i>Gyps kolbii</i>	.	.	.	Kolbe's Vulture
<i>Otogyps auricularis</i>	.	.	.	Black Vulture
<i>Neophron percnopterus</i>	.	.	.	Egyptian Vulture

SERPENTARIIDÆ

<i>Serpentarius secretarius</i>	.	.	Secretary Bird
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PHALACROCORACIDÆ

<i>Phalacrocorax africanus</i>	.	Reed Duiker
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PELECANIDÆ

<i>Pelecanus roseus</i>	.	.	Eastern White Pelican
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CICIONIIDÆ

<i>Mycteria senegalensis</i>	.	.	Saddle-bill
<i>Leptoptilus crumeniferus</i>	.	.	Marabou
<i>Pseudotantalus ibis</i>	.	.	Wood Ibis

SCOPIDÆ

<i>Scopus umbretta</i>	.	.	Hammerkop
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ARDEIDÆ

<i>Ardea goliath</i>	.	.	.	Goliath Heron
<i>A. cinerea</i>	.	.	.	Grey Heron
<i>A. melanocephala</i>	.	.	.	Black-headed Heron
<i>A. purpurea</i>	.	.	.	Purple Heron
<i>Herodias alba</i>	.	.	.	Great White Egret
<i>H. brachyrhyncha</i>	.	.	.	Yellow-billed Egret
<i>H. garzetta</i>	.	.	.	Little Egret
<i>Bubulcus ibis</i>	.	.	.	Cattle Egret
<i>Ardeola ralloides</i>	.	.	.	Squacco Heron
<i>Erythrocnus rufiventris</i>	.	.	.	Rufous-bellied Heron
<i>Butorides atricapilla</i>	.	.	.	Green-backed Heron
<i>Nycticorax griseus</i>	.	.	.	Night Heron
<i>Ardetta payessi</i>	.	.	.	Red-necked Little Bittern
<i>A. sturmi</i>	.	.	.	African Dwarf Bittern

IBIDIDÆ

Ibis ethiopica Sacred Ibis
Hagedashia hagadash. .	. Hadada
Plegadis falcinellus . .	. Glossy Ibis

PLATALEIDÆ

Platalea alba African Spoonbill
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PHENICOPTERIDÆ

Phenicopterus roseus Greater Flamingo
P. minor Lesser Flamingo

ANATIDÆ

Plectropterus gambensis .	. Spur-winged Goose
B. niger Black Spur-winged Goose
Nettopus auritus Dwarf Goose
Dendrocycna viduata . .	. White-faced Duck
Alopochen egyptiacus . .	. Berg Gans
Anas undulata Geelbek
Nettion punctatus Hottentot Teal
Pecilonetta erythrorhyncha	Redbill
Nyroca erythrophthalma .	. South African Pochard
Thalassidroma leucorhoa .	. White-backed Duck
Erismatura maccoa Maccoa Duck

TRERONIDÆ

Vinago delalandii Delalande's Green Pigeon
Columba pheonota Speckled Pigeon
Turtur ambiguus Bocage's Red-eyed Dove
T. capicola Cape Turtle Dove
T. senegalensis Laughing Dove
Ena capensis Namaqua Dove

PTEROCLIDÆ

Pterocles bicinctus Double-banded Sandgrouse
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PHASIANIDÆ

Fringilla monticola Crested Francolin
F. shelleyi Shelley's Francolin

PHASIANIDÆ—*continued*

<i>F. natalensis</i>	.	.	Natal Francolin
<i>Pternistes humboldti</i>	.	.	Humboldt's Francolin
<i>Coturnix africana</i>	.	.	Cape Quail
<i>C. delagorguei</i>	.	.	Harlequin Quail
<i>Numida mitrata</i>	.	.	East African Guinea-fowl
<i>Guttera eduardi</i>	.	.	Crested Guinea-fowl

TURNICIDÆ

<i>Turnix lepurana</i>	.	.	Kurrichane Hemipode
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RALLIDÆ

<i>Crex egregia</i>	.	.	African Corn Crake
<i>Ortygometra porzana</i>	.	.	Spotted Crake
<i>O. pusilla</i>	.	.	Baillon's Crake
<i>Limnocorax niger</i>	.	.	Black Crake
<i>Gallinula chloropus</i>	.	.	Moorhen
<i>G. angulata</i>	.	.	Lesser Moorhen
<i>Porhyrio madagascariensis</i>	.	.	King Reedhen
<i>Fulica cristata</i>	.	.	Red-knobbed Coot

GRUIDÆ

<i>Tetrapteryx paradisea</i>	.	.	Blue Crane
<i>Balearica regulorum</i>	.	.	Crowned Crane

OTIDÆ

<i>Otis melanogaster</i>	.	.	Black-bellied Knorhaan
<i>O. kori</i>	.	.	Gom Paauw

EDICNEMIDÆ

<i>Edicnemus capensis</i>	..	.	Dikkop
<i>E. vermiculatus</i>	.	.	Water Dikkop

GLAREOLIDÆ

<i>Rhinoptilus chalcopterus</i>	.	.	Bronze-winged Courser
<i>Glareola pratincola</i>	.	.	Pratincole
<i>G. melanoptera</i>	.	.	Nordmann's Pratincole
<i>Galactochrysea emini</i>	.	.	Emin's Pratincole

CHAPTER IX

ZAMBEZIAN ZOOLOGY

THE wide plains and forests bordering upon the Zambezi River are still the permanent abiding places of large quantities of wild animals, and those families of great game beasts which have come most to interest sportsmen are still to be found in great numbers and of many varieties.

The forests of Shupanga, especially those portions which fall within the concession of the Luabo Company, are particularly rich in many interesting types; and although it may be feared that for several reasons they do not tend at present to increase very greatly in numbers, many years must of necessity elapse before these districts come to share the shot-out condition of those farther to the southward.

It may be taken, I think, as a general principle that the most acceptable districts to the best known and most keenly sought game animals are those in which forests and open plains alternate at low elevation. As I have previously pointed out, almost the whole of the country we are considering is forested more or less; but where the tree-covered expanses lift themselves somewhat above the level

of the basins of the rivers, they leave the animal kingdom behind, if we except a few types to whose habits and mode of life a higher altitude is, for some reason, in each case essential. Taken as a whole, therefore, there is not much to be said for the hill country. Its depressing stillness, undisturbed, save at long intervals, by any living form, somewhat detracts from its rather vague beauties. Of course, with certain migratory families such as the elephant and others, which have their own times and seasons for visiting well-remembered parts of the country, either for the enjoyment of certain fruits or for other purposes, high or low elevations are alike indifferent. They come and go with remarkable regularity, and appear to be fully conscious of the significance of the seasons of seed-time and harvest; but taking the great mass of the families represented, they are found as a rule in the lower-lying plains.

I do not consider that the mammalian portion of the fauna of Portuguese Zambezia displays any very striking distinctive features, any more than does its avi-fauna, whilst any peculiarities induced by purely local conditions are of so slight a nature that few, if any, have been hitherto observed. The principal peculiarity would appear to connect itself with the fact that unaccountable breaks occur in regard to certain forms of birds and beasts found both to the north and south which here are wholly absent. Of these, some of the most striking examples are the Oryx, still existing in certain parts of British South Africa and in Somaliland, as also that curious form the Aard-wolf, of which, in Zambezia, I under-

stand, no trace has as yet been found. The Tsesseby (*Damaliscus lunatus*), existing a hundred miles to the southward, and again, I believe, in certain districts of the Nyasaland Protectorate, is, so far as I am aware, wholly absent from the basin of the Zambezi. Added to these the Giraffe, Situtunga, the Lechwe and Puku among the Cobus family, certain monkeys, and a multitude of birds, headed by the Ostrich, are here entirely non-existent in conditions in which their absence is, to my mind, wholly inexplicable. Yet, curious as it may appear, all the animals enumerated are found to the north or south, and some to both. Explanations of these surprising facts are perforce speculative to a degree. Naturalists, in order to account for the distribution of the world's fauna, are willing, with a most engaging irresponsibility, to reconstruct the great Scheme of Things, and turn land into water and continent into sea. Forms and species change, doubtless, and even where no particular degree of outward and visible alteration may have proclaimed itself, conditions and necessities of life may have proved unattractive or insufficient, necessitating wholesale migrations; but putting aside the many unacceptable theories which have been propounded to account for the localisation of the game families, I consider it may be explained, at least in the cases of some of the species mentioned, by prolonged periods of drought, or of long-extended conditions unfavourable to the growth or development of some favourite article of diet, and this may have caused them to wander off in search of it to distant portions of the country,

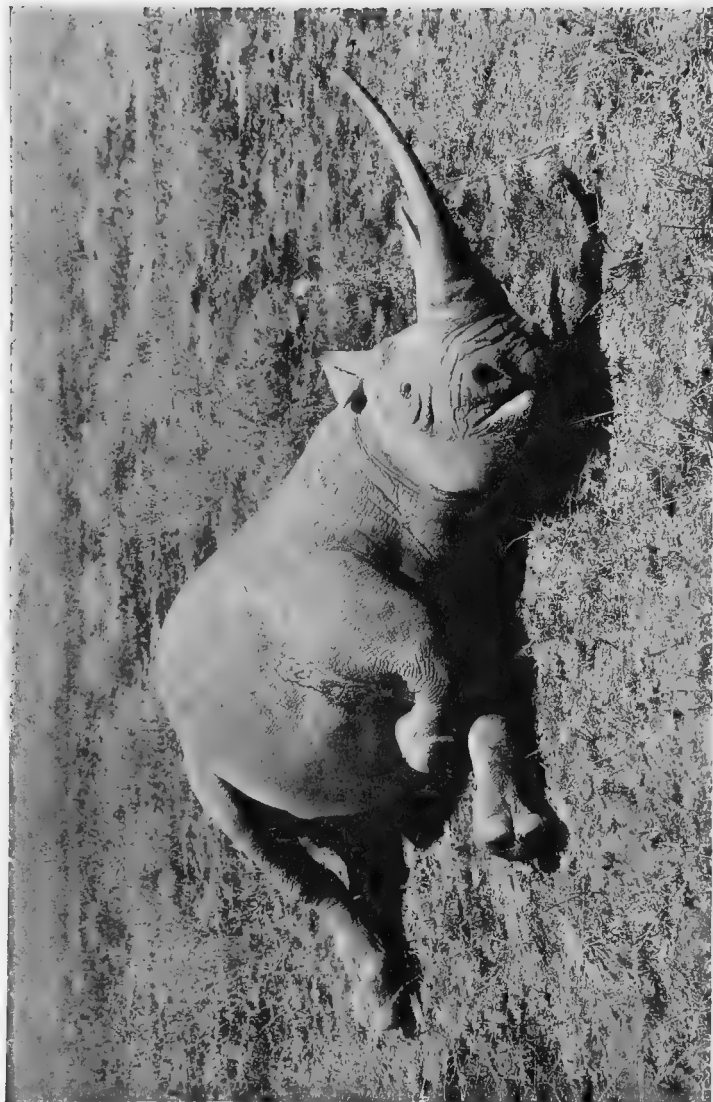
whence, in the ordinary nature of things, they never returned.

On the plains and more open country several species of large antelopes appear, sometimes in large herds, and foremost among them are eland, waterbuck, wildebeeste, and reed-buck ; sable antelopes in large numbers abound in the low, forested hill country ; also, it is said, roan are not unrepresented. Hidden with them in the trees we also find the shy, beautiful kudu, the graceful impala, Lichtenstein's hartebeeste, bush - buck, duiker, oribi, and several smaller forms to which more detailed reference will be made hereafter.

Elephant, rhinoceros (*R. bicornis*), zebras, and buffaloes are still found in fair quantities, and the sobbing grunt of the amorous hippopotamus is heard on all the streams and marshes throughout the country. There are, in addition, several pigs, namely, the hideous wart-hog, and two bush-pigs.

We now come to the great order of the Carnivora, which embraces many families, the foremost members of which are naturally the lion and leopard. These are sufficiently numerous to be a source of considerable danger and loss of life among the native races, Europeans at times falling victims to them as well. The spotted hyena is also widely distributed, whilst servals, civets, genets, three ichneumons, jackals, hunting dogs, several weasels, two otters, a wild cat, and a badger, exhaust the list of the predatory forms so far as our present knowledge extends.

The Rodentia are represented by a number of



BLACK RHINOCEROS.

rats, prominent among which are the common black variety, a bush rat, two or three ground rats, a long-tailed cane rat as large as a good-sized rabbit, two hares, and about six different squirrels, one of which is of such remarkably brilliant colouring that I think it must be the *Scirius lucifer*. Among the lower sub-orders of the Ungulata, I am only aware of one rabbit, which I believe to be Bruce's Hyrax.

From the foregoing formidable list it will be at once evident that in those natural fastnesses to which the game beasts' arch-enemy man can still penetrate only at the cost of considerable time, trouble, and expense, the more important African mammals are still fairly numerous both in numbers and varieties; and before proceeding to describe them in greater detail, I shall once more add to the many I have already expressed, an earnest hope that steps may be taken ere long to protect these beautiful and interesting creatures from that senseless, indiscriminate slaughter which has for so many years been permitted to decimate their former countless numbers, to reduce certain families to the verge of extinction, and to remove from vast areas of the continent of Africa a charm which can never be replaced.

As I have just stated, Elephants are not uncommon. They must have existed a few decades ago in considerable numbers, but as the original primitive means of transport on the river gave place to steam, and more and more settlers began to arrive, the great herds were either killed off by native hunters in the employ of Europeans, or

wandered farther away from the settlements to localities whither it no longer paid to follow them. In the forests and marshes of Shupanga they have found a refuge in which they are but little disturbed, and here they will probably linger for many years to come. Curiously enough, the elephant of this part of Africa—and by this part of Africa I mean the whole of the Zambezi from the mouth to Coroabassa, and thence south through the Barué country and the Mozambique Company's territory eastward to the sea—although an immense animal, probably quite as large as, if not larger than, those found in Uganda or Abyssinia, carries disappointingly small tusks. I have seen considerable numbers of elephants in all three portions of the large area mentioned, and shot several, but I never remember to have seen or heard of tusks of ivory obtained there which scaled more than fifty or sixty pounds at the most, and I cannot help thinking it extremely probable that where the larger landed associations have not themselves destroyed these magnificent beasts for the sake of the ivory, they have been so destroyed for that reason by natives and other unauthorised persons.

The only domesticated African elephant of which I have heard, leaving aside the well-known Jumbo of unsaintly and treacherous memory, is one which was given as a present by a former King of Uganda to his brother ruler of Zanzibar. I was informed by his Highness the present Sultan that this animal was sent to India, and was singularly docile, but what its ultimate fate was he was unable to tell me. Since the days of the Cartha-

ginians, who used these animals in their wars and forays, the two elephants mentioned would appear to be the sole instances of the domestication of this magnificent beast; but the reported capture in Rhodesia of a number of young elephants recently, gives one reason to hope that very shortly we may hear of some interesting experiments in this direction.

In the Barué district, and in portions of the dry thorn country, both north and south of the Zambezi, about the Lupata Gorge, the Black Rhinoceros may still be found. He is by no means numerous however, and, to the best of my belief, is absent entirely from those areas which lie to the eastward of Shupanga in the south, or of a line drawn thence northward to the sixteenth parallel of south latitude. The larger form of square-mouthed or so-called white rhinoceros is not found in Portuguese East Africa. This latter extraordinary creature, which was at one time so numerous in South Africa that in certain portions of the country, as Baker tells us, men like Oswell and Gordon-Cumming finally got tired of shooting them, is almost extinct in the southern half of the great continent. A few are jealously preserved, I am told, in the Zululand Game Reserve, and a few are believed to exist in that portion of Rhodesia lying between Salisbury and the Kariba Gorge of the Zambezi, but their numbers are thought to be very limited. It is thus a source of great gratification, to those who feared for the preservation of this splendid and most extraordinary type, to learn that its occurrence to the north of

the Zambezi, for so many years regarded as uncertain, has now been placed beyond doubt. Several have been obtained in North Central Africa during the last year or two, and there is some prospect that shortly European Museums may be enriched by still further specimens from the same locality.

Unlike the Rhinoceros, which from whatsoever cause most assuredly tends to diminish in number, no early extinction need be prophesied for that great amphibious pachyderm the Hippopotamus, which continues to be extremely numerous in Zambezia when once the main stream of the great river is left behind. As I remember the Zambezi in the early nineties, hippopotami were still numerous, but the daily passage of the steamers has driven them into the affluents and marshes which extend in places for long distances, and, secure in these impenetrable fastnesses, they will continue to multiply for many years to come. When I first arrived in Zambezia in 1894, I heard many stories of the danger these great beasts were to navigation in small boats and canoes, and there is no doubt that the natives are still in great dread of them. For some hitherto unexplained reason, they are addicted to a playful habit of upsetting these frail craft, apparently for the pure enjoyment of watching the struggles of the occupants in the water. It is a curious fact that there are very few cases on record of the natives being molested whilst swimming, although this has happened. Having caused the capsizing, the great beast does not retreat. He remains on the surface



HIPPOPOTAMUS.

calmly regarding the catastrophe with an air of deprecating surprise which is almost apologetic.

The Hippopotamus has the distinction of possessing the largest mouth of all the brute creation, and in weight he comes next to the elephant, a well-grown, mature male scaling over five tons. This I had occasion to prove in 1898, when, having shot one at Quelimane, a large Norwegian steamer alongside of which I towed it was unable to raise the carcass on deck by means of the ordinary steam winches, which would, I was informed, raise an ordinary lift of five tons with ease.

Although as a rule a pacific and somewhat lethargic animal, the Hippopotamus is not a very desirable neighbour. His appetite requires a great deal of appeasing, and as he has an especial predilection for cultivated growths, for maize, millet, and above all sugar-cane, he is clearly an acquaintance to be sedulously discouraged if your special mission in life should be in the direction of tilling the soil.

The African Buffalo, commonly and misleadingly called the "Cape Buffalo" (*Bos caffer*), although nothing like so numerous as he was before the great epidemic of rinderpest, which swept through the country about the year 1896, still exists to some extent on both banks of the Zambezi, where there is some indication of a tendency for their numbers to increase. In the Luabo Company's fine Prazo, in Shupanga, and also on the north bank between the Nkwazi Prazo and the Lupata Gorge, herds of considerable size may at times be

met with. In those portions of the country which have witnessed the rapid development of the sugar industry, and where formerly the great wild ox was perhaps most numerous, his latter-day representatives are gradually retiring, doubtless following the example of the great varieties we have just been considering. On the wide N'konde Plains, which are washed by the southern branch of the Zambezi delta, I have seen buffaloes in herds of large size, and here, by reason of the small amount of hunting which has been hitherto undertaken, they are fairly tame, some of the older animals showing at times an unpleasant disinclination to make way for one. I have known them paw up the turf, toss their heads threateningly, and trot for some distance in my direction before suffering themselves to be dispersed.

I regard the African Buffalo as unquestionably the most dangerous animal the hunter is called upon to try conclusions with. Of immense power and very speedy, his senses of scent, sight, and hearing are so keen that, when once his resentment is aroused, the greatest care and coolness must be exercised to assure success and prevent a serious mishap. It is perfectly ridiculous of certain writers on African great game to make definite statements regarding the Buffalo's behaviour in given circumstances. I have killed a number of these animals in the course of my experiences, and have witnessed determined charges by them in circumstances in which, had I paid regard to the dogmatic remarks of irresponsible writers, I should have considered I had nothing to fear. These charges took place



THE AFRICAN BUFFALO.

both in bush and in open country, and on one occasion before I had fired a shot or done anything whatsoever to irritate the animal. I feel, therefore, that, as doubtless in the cases of others of the dangerous types of wild animals, they should be hunted without any regard to the experiences of other persons, and each, as it were, upon its own merits, and with careful retention in the memory of the vital fact that, from the moment he becomes irritated, every beast is a law unto himself.

I cannot conclude my remarks on this animal, however, without some reference to the interesting controversy which occupied the columns of the *Field* during the latter portion of 1907 relative to the views of such observers as Sir Alfred Sharpe and Mr. Selous regarding the dependence of the Tse-tse fly for its existence upon the blood of the buffalo—or, indeed, upon that of any species of wild game. The first-named authority expressed the opinion, held by a number of such well-known and competent writers upon the great game of Africa as Major J. Stevenson-Hamilton, Major F. A. Pearce, C.M.G., and others, that in so far as nourishment for its singularly unnecessary frame is concerned, the Tse-tse stands in no greater need of the blood of mammals than do the various types of mosquito. This view is in entire accord with my own experiences, extending over some fifteen years spent in British Central and Portuguese East Africa. I am acquainted in the latter portion of the country with fly-belts of considerable width wherein game is not only now wholly non-existent, but wherein none has occurred over a period of years.

Conversely, I am aware of extensive areas populous with game of many varieties wherein the Tse-tse has not been noted ; areas, be it understood, where buffaloes although not permanently present occur at certain times of year.

There are, of course, many points relating to the curious predilection of this insect for one part of the country in preference to another apparently equally favourable to its development which are still imperfectly, if at all, understood ; but that it should be dependent upon any kind of mammal for its sustenance, or that, as some persons of extreme views have stated, the beautiful and interesting game families should be exterminated in order that the Tse-tse should thus perforce succumb to a death by famine, is a theory so inconsistent with the views of well-qualified observers, who have approached the question with the advantage of a more scientific environment than was possessed in the days to which Mr. Selous' remarkable memory enables him to throw back his still active mind, that of a truth one is forced to the conclusion that their enthusiastically expressed views must have been largely the outcome of imperfect understanding.

The Pigs of the country are limited to three, and of these the Wart-hog (*Phacochoerus æthiopicus*) is the largest, ugliest, and in many ways the most singular. In addition there are the Bush-pig (*Potamochoerus chærapotamus*), and another of whose identity I am uncertain, but which may be a slight variation of the bush variety mentioned.

Of the first species, I suppose there is probably

no more hideous blot upon the brute creation than this unlovely creature. His immense head, out of all proportion to the small, cobby body, is rendered still more hideous by the four large, projecting, black warts, which, placed two on either side of his unprepossessing face, give him somewhat the appearance, viewed at close quarters, of a perky gnome with a large ivory moustache. I have read somewhere that the Wart-hog is more nearly allied to the Elephant than any other hitherto identified existing mammal. This is another of his claims to distinction, and one which his splendid reputed connection probably views with somewhat mingled feelings. However, the diminished complement of incisor teeth in the upper jaw is taken as to some extent distinguishing him from the ordinary pig, so that, at any rate, must be such a source of gratification to him that one wonders he does not stroll about with his mouth wide open all day long.

This animal affects sandy, more or less arid regions, in which he may often be seen grubbing for roots, or, with his entire family, lying extended sound asleep in some warm, sunny, sheltered spot. At night he endeavours to secure himself against the attacks of predatory beasts by occupying some hole thoughtfully provided for him by an ant-bear, or in some natural crevice or small cave.

The Bush-pigs already referred to, which are believed to be distantly connected with the West African type, are covered with long bristly hair of greyish hue, yellow in patches, and possess a singular white beard, in this respect differing from

the Wart-hog, which, with the exception of a mane of coarse, long, black bristles, possesses but little if any hirsute covering. The Bush-pigs are, incidentally, most excellent eating, and, consequently, a welcome addition to the wayfarer's larder.

Turning to the antelopes, we will at once proceed to consider the Tragelaphs, the first to claim our attention being that splendid type Livingstone's Eland (*Taurotragus oryx*). This, the largest of the ruminants, as it is assuredly the one of all others which would best repay preservation and domestication, is, in this part of the country as compared with those found farther to the northward, of a pale yellowish fawn-colour, with fine white stripes. The old bulls, especially in the winter season, change to a dull slaty-grey, and become almost hairless. The latter, moreover, possess an extremely large dewlap, and, unlike other tragelaphine forms such as the kudu, inyala, bushbuck, and others, both male and female carry horns. In the country I am describing, the eland grows to a most commanding size, one which I shot in 1904 in Gorongoza measuring nearly 5 ft. 7 in. to the highest part of the withers. Their horns are extremely handsome, a good pair measuring anything from 28 to 32 in., and some, I believe, considerably more.

Kudu (*Strepciseros kudu*) are found in the low hilly country giving on to mountain ranges, and are, without doubt, not only the most symmetrical and graceful members of the wide family to which they belong, but their colouring is the most striking and pleasing. If one may thus generalise concern-



AN ELAND.

ing the bodily perfections of this splendid type, what can one say to do justice to the majesty and beauty of the noble horns? The largest pair I have seen measured $60\frac{3}{4}$ in. following the curve, but I consider that any head with horns measuring more than 56 in. might well be described as a good one. The Kudu is a shy beast, of very acute senses of smell and hearing, and his mousy-grey colouring enables him to conceal himself very effectually in the tree-covered hill country in which he is almost invariably found; and were it not for his striping, which I think is much more pronounced than in the case of the Eland, his presence would rarely be detected.

I have not yet heard of the Inyala (*Tragelaphus angasi*) as occurring on the Zambezi, although he is well known in British territory on the River Shiré, and, therefore, not very far removed. On the Sabi River to the southward, this interesting and extremely shy animal is found, a very fine specimen having been bagged there last year by my friend the Marchese de Pizzardi.

The only remaining Tragelaph is the Bushbuck (*T. scriptus*). This attractive little beast inhabits as a rule thick bush country, and may even be found at considerable elevation. The females are of clear chestnut, whilst the males, affecting the peculiarities of their distant connection the Eland, become dark slaty-grey, spotted and striped with white on the flanks and hindquarters, and showing a distinct stripe from withers to tail. The Bushbuck requires careful handling, and has been known to charge fiercely when wounded. The finest pair of

horns I have seen belonging to this animal were obtained in the lower Zambezi district by Fleet-Surgeon Stalkartt, R.N., and measured over nineteen inches in length. The Bushbuck's horns are almost exactly the same shape as those of his big brother the Situtunga (*T. spekei*), with the exception that the latter possess white tips, which are not characteristic of the smaller variety. The amphibious Situtunga does not occur, so far as is known, within the region bordering the Portuguese Zambezi.

The Zebra (*Equus zebra*) runs in large herds, and is, so far as I can form an opinion, identical with the clearly striped Central African form, wherein well-defined marking runs all the way down the limbs, and even the tail is striped to the end. I do not think, unless in the mountainous northern portions of the Zambezia district which are still imperfectly known, the smaller type, known as the Mountain Zebra, occurs; the one generally known possessing markings in the form of broad, jet-black stripes on dark cream or pure white. There is no marking whatsoever between the stripes, such as distinguishes both Chapman's and Burchell's varieties.

I do not like to include the Zebra among the game families for consideration in the same way as the remaining varieties, for, to my mind, this beautiful creature should never be shot. Not only is their presence on the plains an ornament which Africa could ill spare, but, by judicious crossing, he would, I doubt not, prove an animal of great importance in future schemes of territorial ex-

ploitation. The Zebra, like most other forms of wild horse, has not much fear of man. In parts of the country where they have not been disturbed the herd will stand and observe the passing traveller at a distance of not much over a hundred yards without displaying any particular disposition to stampede. In British as well as German East Africa, zebra farms have been established at which a fair amount of success has attended their training, but their usefulness for purposes of traction has been greatly marred by some weakness—probably of the quarters—which, it may be, will not be successfully eradicated until recourse is had to crossing with some equine type of more muscular build.

That dun-coloured, partially striped horse the Quagga (*E. quagga*) has not, I am informed, been reported from any portion of Africa north of the Zambezi, which river, indeed, he does not approach. It was recently stated that this form is on the point of becoming extinct,* unless it be increasing in the southern portion of the continent.

Of the Cobus family there is, I believe, but one representative, namely, the common Waterbuck (*C. ellipsiprymnus*). I have always regarded this handsome antelope as more nearly approaching the British stag in build, carriage, and appearance than any other species of African game. Like all Cervicaprines, the female carries no horns, which in the case of the male are extremely fine, extending

* Since writing the foregoing, I have it on the authority of that eminent observer Major Stevenson-Hamilton that the Quagga has entirely died out.

slightly forward at the tips and strikingly annulated. They reach in some cases a length of from twenty-nine to thirty-two inches, but, as is the case with other forms, they vary greatly, a twenty-nine-inch head being in one locality regarded as abnormally large where in another it would scarcely attract attention. The Waterbuck is of dark grey; his long coarse hair, which, beneath the chin, grows to a length of three or four inches, gives him the appearance of a beast meant by nature for a colder climate. A white ring on the rump is the only mark he possesses, which, in some of the sub-species found in British territory to the northward, is pale yellow or dun-coloured.

Found as a rule in herds of from ten to twenty, or more, they frequent grassy plains not far from water, or thin forest giving on to open country. They are very tenacious of life, and a powerful rifle is necessary in hunting them. I have been informed that another Cobus, the Puku (*C. vardonii*), has been seen in the country south of the Inyamissengo mouth of the Zambezi; but although I am familiar with this district, I have never seen any trace of it. So far as we know at present, it does not occur until the middle course of the Loangwa* River is reached, whilst thence onward to Lake Mweru it is found in immense herds.

The Sable Antelope (*Strepciseros niger*), although existing in large numbers, rarely attains to the impressive horn development which distinguishes the male in Nyasaland, in Southern Rhodesia, and in the Northern Transvaal. Here is another

* Or Aroangwa.



YOUNG MALE SABLE.

magnificent creature, and, fortunately, yet common throughout East and South-East Africa. The Sable's chief attraction lies in his vivid colouring, an old male being quite black on his back and mane, and snowy white beneath his belly, on his cheeks, and on the inner sides of his limbs. About the size of a small Alderney, his shapely head, supported by a powerful arched neck, is surmounted by a magnificent pair of deeply annulated horns, which sweep backward almost in a perfect half circle, and attain a length of considerably over 40 inches, sometimes measuring 10 or 12 round the base. It is said that the Sable is one of the few, if not the only animal a lion is chary of attacking. He is extremely dangerous when brought to bay, and so powerful and courageous that I have sometimes thought there may be some truth in the statement. The female is somewhat smaller than her consort, and her horns nothing like so impressive. Her colouring, moreover, is somewhat less violent, very dark chestnut-brown with darker tendencies on the back and mane, the under portions of the body yellowish white, instead of pure white as in the case of the male. A herd of Sable presents one of the most interesting and fascinating of all game pictures—indeed, as they sweep past one at a short range, a bewilderingly beautiful vision of strength, swiftness, and symmetry, one feels instinctively that the camera is the instrument one requires and not the rifle at all. It is a moment for the art of the limner, not that of the destroyer.

That larger member of the same family—the plainer member, as one cannot help thinking—the

Roan Antelope (*Hippotragus equinus*) is not numerous. In the low forest country his presence may often be detected by the destruction wrought among the ant-hills of the blind white termite, which he breaks up to get at the salty earth within. In this way he spoils his appearance to some extent, as it is extremely rare to find an old male with horns undamaged by this form of burglary, or else by fighting, for of all the African antelopes he is said to be the most pugnacious whilst under the influence of the tender passion, and cases are not infrequent of fatal encounters among the young males. The destruction to the horns, from one cause or another, is not so general among the females as among the females of the Sable, but neither sex of the Roan is in any particular so interesting or attractive as the former either in appearance, colouring, or horn measurement.

The Blue Wildebeeste or Brindled Gnu (*Connochætes taurinus*) occurs occasionally on the southern outskirts of Shupanga. This curious type, closely related to the Nyasaland Gnu (*C. t. johnstoni*) discovered by Mr. H. C. Macdonald in 1895, but differing from the latter by the much greater exuberance of its shaggy mane, and face and neck hair, as well as by the absence of the inverted white chevron on the nose, is completely absent from Nyasaland, but reappears in East Africa endowed with a white beard under the name of *C. albojubatus*. The long, weird skull of this curious animal is not unlike that of the Hartebeeste, to which, by some scientists, it is regarded as nearly related. It may be, but this is apparently one of the many

points concerning which observers are still considerably exercised. One shining light goes so far as to trace the Gnu with ponderous precision to an undoubted type of specified hartebeeste, and I cannot help thinking that since the original form still survives, and appears none the worse for having severed its connection with its coexisting, aberrant relative, there is ground for surprise that it should display no outward and visible sign of its share in so singular a connection. But nearly all scientists are like that. I remember reading somewhere that the unfortunate type of antelope we are considering had been gravely classed with the *Budorcas* of Tibet, whilst in the same page, and only a few lines lower down, one found the gifted author apparently prepared to welcome suggestions lending probability to an affinity between the Wildebeeste of Africa and the Musk Sheep (*Ovibos*) of North America. One's mind loses itself, therefore, in a wide field of conjecture as to what the feelings of the wretched Wildebeeste would be did he but know of half the outrageous attempts which are so often made to connect him with families with whom he would probably in no sort of way welcome proof of alliance.

Let us now turn to the Hartebeeste (*Bubalis lichtensteini*), and see how far his appearance at least lends itself to such theories as those above quoted. All over the open grass and thinly forested country the Hartebeeste occurs with wearying persistency, single beasts frequently consorting with zebras, waterbuck, and other varieties, but not tending, so far as I have yet ascertained, to produce any more aberrant types by means of these casual

acquaintanceships. If he were built on more elegant lines, the Hartebeeste would be an interesting, I had almost written a prepossessing animal; but he is too high on the withers and too low on the croup. Added to this, the beast's head is disproportionately long and big, and he has a way of cantering off as though all four of his feet were off the ground at once. There is a considerable difference both in the size and colouring of the two sexes, the males being of a dark rufous chestnut, whilst the females are much paler in colour and smaller in size. Both sexes carry horns, which are not very desirable as trophies. The Hartebeeste is amazingly tenacious of life, and I suppose probably every hunter of great game possesses recollections of having lost them when severely wounded oftener than any other beast. The chief point in shooting this animal is that it furnishes you with a supply of most excellent meat; but unless the head-skin be taken, and the whole carefully mounted, there is little to redeem the long, coffin-shaped skull which hangs from so many East African walls from an aspect of utter gruesomeness.

An interesting and very beautiful cervicaprine is the Impala (*Æpiceros melampus*), found in these forests in large herds. The Impala is the impersonation of grace and elegance from the dainty, annulated, lyre-shaped horns to the small, well-formed, pointed foot. Curiously enough, in Zambezia the horns never attain so great a size as in British East Africa, where they are also common.*

* This may be due to the fact that the Zambezi species is slightly smaller than that found in the East African forests.

Of the brightest chestnut, with white belly, and a striking black line down the leg, this graceful type is found, as I have said, in the forests not far from water, and where the tree growths alternate with open glades. It seems almost sacrilege to mention in connection with so fascinating and gentle a creature that the Impala is remarkably good eating, as is also that other well-known cervicaprine the Reedbuck (*Cervicapra arundinum*), which is, I fancy, rather larger in size than the species just mentioned.

The Reedbuck does not run in herds; usually two or three are seen together, never more than five or six, and most frequently only one. On taking alarm, reedbuck bound away with a peculiar wheezy squeak, and if the hunter have the presence of mind to whistle shrilly, they will often halt out of sheer curiosity, thus giving him a chance of a shot. They are often very trying to a stalker, as the singular sound they emit when disturbed alarms the game for a considerable distance. Reedbuck are about the size of a large English roe-deer, and are, I am persuaded, undoubtedly a branch of the Cobus family (unless, that is, they be aberrant forms of the Himalayan Ibex!). Near the sea coast they are especially numerous, their spoor being often visible on the sands.

The Duiker (*Cephalophus grimmii*) is fairly numerous, both in the low and moderately elevated country, preferring always forest to plain. I have sometimes thought I have seen the so-called red variety in these districts, but it is somewhat difficult to distinguish between them, except for the

fact that the latter stands a little higher on his legs. It is by no means easy in the forest to identify the Duiker, in the momentary glimpse which is often all that one is afforded, from the slightly larger Oribi (*Oribia scoparia*), which is also not uncommon, has similar peculiarities, and inhabits the same class of country. These charmingly pretty antelopes, with the Klipspringer (*Oreotragus saltator*), constitute, I believe, the only members of the Bovidæ found in Zambezia.*

I have purposely left the Carnivora until last, as a sort of feeble protest against the vast destruction they work among those other useful, beautiful, and, to my mind, more interesting families we have just been considering. First and foremost comes the Lion. In all the course of the lower Zambezi lions are found. In some places they are numerous—too numerous; in others they occur periodically; but their grunting and, less frequently, roaring are sounds which are among the traveller's nightly experiences in certain portions of the country. Though I understand both the black-maned and the yellow-maned animals belong to the same species, the latter is the most commonly reported. South of the Zambezi and near the Mozambique Company's boundary on the Mupa River, lions are particularly abundant, and many man-eaters occur. To such an extent, indeed, do they carry on their depredations that it is no uncommon experience to pass large, well-built villages which have been completely abandoned

* Livingstone's antelope is reported from the Shupanga Forest, but I have never seen one.

owing to the number of people taken. In these districts it is not unusual for the native huts to be enclosed in a high palisading designed as a protection, and interwoven with thorn bushes, but in spite of these precautions great numbers of casualties occur.

Leopards, though undoubtedly more numerous, are much less frequently seen. They are, however, constantly trapped by the natives, who have several well-devised means of effecting their capture. Leopard skins are often brought in for sale, usually minus the claws, which are extracted and worn as potent charms against the animal and its depredations. Servals also are fairly numerous, and, there is no doubt, cause great destruction among the smaller antelopes, monkeys, and lesser forms. They are beautiful creatures, often nearly four feet long, and possessed of a curious lynx-like tuft on the ears. A Wild-cat (*Felis caffra*), a Genet, and a small Civet exhaust the chief members of the Felidæ, if one omit the common Cat domesticated by the natives all Africa over. I do not think any hunting varieties similar to the Cheetah are known here. They occur, it is said, in some of the northern portions of the Province of Mozambique, but I have not heard that their range extends south of Angoche.

The Hyena represented here is the spotted variety (*H. crocuta*), which is found all over Central and South Central Africa, with the common Jackal (*Canis adustus*).

A serious scourge is the Hunting Dog (*Lycaon pictus*), found all over these parts of the continent.

They are said to run in small packs of ten or a dozen, and to cause much loss of life among the lesser antelopes.

Three Ichneumons and a small black and white Pole-cat are found, and, in the rivers, two distinct Otters.

In dealing with the Monkeys, we are at once struck by the curious fact that neither of the great anthropoid apes, the Chimpanzee or the Gorilla common to Ethiopian Africa, the black and white Colobus (*C. palliatus*), nor, so far as I am aware, more than two or three Cercopithecus monkeys are found in Zambezia, whose varieties only include the Yellow Baboon (*Papio babuin*), the grey variety discovered by Dr. Percy Rendall in Nyasaland some years ago (or something so like it that I cannot detect the difference), and two or three grivets.

The two baboons I have mentioned are everywhere, and are a source of considerable loss and not a little alarm to the natives, whose gardens they rob, and whose women and children they frighten. In out-of-the-way portions of the country where Europeans are few, they will, when numerous, scarcely take the trouble to get out of the way in the case of an individual not furnished with fire-arms, of whose uses they appear to be perfectly aware. Cases of attack by baboons are by no means unknown. Native women regard them with terror, and state that the baboons have been known to outrage them. I have heard this statement in so many different parts of Africa, that it is hard to believe there may not be some foundation for it, and when you come to consider that this



A GOOD RIGHT AND LEFT: THE AFRICAN LEOPARD.

animal possesses about thrice the strength and activity of a Great Dane, and is of about the same size, it will be understood that he is capable of much. Their prudence and foresight in throwing out sentries and outposts when attacking a native garden are positively uncanny.

The only remaining known members of the order of Primates are the Lemuroids, two in number, consisting of the great Galago, and the small Moholi species, which are very numerous, and with their thick, greyish white fur and bushy tails are not unlike some strange mixture between a monkey and a small fluffy cat.

The Edentates are represented by but one variety, the Scaly Ant-eater (*Manis temmincki*).

The common Porcupine is addicted to leaving his quills lying in the path, but is seldom seen.

In many parts of Africa—most, as it seems to me—the preservation of game beasts has been far too long delayed, and by preservation I mean, of course, the present measure of very partial protection which regulations in force extend. In most of the British South African Colonies game is almost non-existent, and although our various spheres of influence nearer the equator are unlikely, by reason of timely enactments, to be denuded in the future to the same extent, one must hope that no efforts will be spared to widen the scope of these salutary measures until, in a form suitable to given conditions, the whole of Africa may in this way assume one common responsibility. In British East Africa, game beasts of many varieties form one of the most striking features of a panorama

in itself of no ordinary beauty and charm. I am told that at times, from the trains of the Uganda Railway, herds upon herds of zebras and gazelles may be seen, and not infrequently rhinoceroses and other animals, and I think every credit is due to the authorities for the timely adoption of such protective measures as have secured so satisfactory a result.

But no game laws can possibly prove efficacious ; no reserves can form the sanctuary they were intended as, unless pains be taken to see that they fulfil the purpose for which they were designed—in a word, unless rangers are appointed to bring offenders, as well European as native, before the person appointed to administer the law. Then again there is another difficulty, and one which must tend in the future very largely to increase, and that is the responsibilities towards game laws of landowners upon whose property game occurs. It is not unnatural that the landed proprietor, strong in the possession of his titles, should take it hardly if you tell him that he may not do as he will upon his own soil. He will resent interference. Rightly or wrongly, he will in most cases have none of your visiting game-regulation official, and then the authorities will have to consider a position which has not as yet seriously confronted them, namely, how far the presence of untamed elephants and wandering rhinoceroses is consistent with agriculture and husbandry. I suppose in time we shall make use of elephants. They must be either utilised or destroyed. All the parts of Africa in which they occur are not unprofitable waste lands

like Knysna Forest and the Addo Bush in Cape Colony. The rhinoceros must go, and so, I suppose, must the picturesque but useless hippopotamus. These two eliminated, therefore, the elephant in chains, and the remaining game families located in well-defined reserves, Africa will then present an aspect towards which all our energies should be directed, and all our regulations be framed.

Again, touching the question of licences. In the district of Zambezia, outside the concession of the Mozambique Company, which has its own game laws, the regulations in force are those enacted by the central Government of Lourenco Marques. They are extremely reasonable, but, in my opinion at least, they do not fulfil the purpose for which they were intended, since there is no check on the number of beasts which a licence-holder has shot. I have noticed that most of the men who come to shoot in Africa insist upon taking as much out of the country as they can, within reasonable limits; and so long as there is no supervision, cases will occur in which the regulations will be broken, and the number of beasts designated by the licence exceeded. At Beira there is a rather salutary measure in force which necessitates the production by the sportsman of his trophies, together with a declaration specifying them, and signed by the district official within whose jurisdiction they were shot. This has done much, no doubt, to check illicit slaughter, and I think it might with advantage be adopted in other hunting centres.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER IX

LIST OF ZAMBEZIAN MAMMALS

Order PRIMATES

<i>Cercopithecus albigularis</i>	.	.	White-throated Grivet Monkey
<i>C. moloneyi</i>	.	.	Moloney's Grivet
<i>C. opisthoticus</i> (?)	.	.	
<i>Otogale kirkii</i>	.	.	Great Galago
<i>O. moholi</i>	.	.	Small Galago
<i>Papio babuin</i>	.	.	Yellow Baboon
<i>P. pruinus</i> (?)	.	.	Grey Baboon

Order UNGULATA

<i>Elephas africanus</i>	.	.	The African Elephant
<i>Rhinoceros bicornis</i>	.	.	The Black Rhinoceros
<i>Equus tigrinus</i>	.	.	The Zebra
<i>Hippopotamus amphibius</i> *	.	.	The Hippopotamus

Sub-Order ARTIODACTYLA

<i>Bos caffer</i>	.	.	The Cape Buffalo
<i>Taurotragus oryx</i>	.	.	The Eland
<i>Cobus ellipsiprymnus</i>	.	.	The Common Waterbuck
<i>Hippotragus equinus</i>	.	.	The Roan Antelope
<i>H. niger</i>	.	.	The Sable Antelope
<i>Strepsiceros kudu</i>	.	.	The Kudu
<i>Bubalis lichtensteini</i>	.	.	The Hartebeeste
<i>Connochætes taurinus</i>	.	.	The Brindled Gnu
<i>Cervicapra arundinum</i>	.	.	The Reedbuck
<i>Tragelaphus scriptus</i>	.	.	The Bushbuck
<i>Æpiceros melampus</i>	.	.	The Impala
<i>Cephalophus grimmi</i>	.	.	The Duiker
<i>Ourebia scoparia</i>	.	.	The Oribi
<i>Oreotragus saltatur</i>	.	.	The Klipspringer
<i>Phacochærus æthiopicus</i>	.	.	The Wart-hog
<i>Potamochærus chæropo-</i> <i>tamus</i>	.	.	The Bush Pig

* This animal is only so placed for the sake of convenience.

Sub-Order HYRACOIDEA

Procyon brucei Bruce's Rabbit

Order EDENTATA

Sub-Order MANES

Manes temmincki . . . Temminck's Ant-eater

Order CARNIVORA

Felis leo	The Lion
F. pardus	The Leopard
F. serval	The Serval
F. caffra	The Native Cat
Hyena crocuta . .	The Spotted Hyena
Canis adustus . .	The Striped Jackal
Herpestes gracilis . .	The Slender Mongoose
H. undulata . . .	The Grizzled Mongoose
Crossarchus fasciatus . .	The Banded Mongoose
Viverra civetta . . .	The Civet
Lycaon pictus . . .	The Hunting Dog
Lutra capensis (?) . .	The Cape Otter
L. maculicollis . . .	The Spotted-necked Otter
Pœcilogale albinucha . .	The White-collared Weasel
Genetta tigrina . . .	The Blotched Genet

Order RODENTIA

Mus rattus . . .	The Black Rat
M. natalensis . . .	The Natal Ground Rat
M. dolichurus . . .	The Large Cane Rat
Thryonomys swinderenianus	The Ground Rat
Lepus crassicaudata . .	The Thick-tailed Hare
Lepus (?)	A smaller variety
Hystrix capensis . .	The Common Porcupine
Xerus cepapi . . .	The South African Splendid Squirrel
X. lucifer (?) . . .	The Splendid Squirrel
Anomalurus cinereus . .	The Grey Flying Squirrel
Sciurus palliatus . .	The Pale Squirrel

CHAPTER X

EXISTING SETTLERS

IT would appear from recent reports from the British Vice-Consul* at Chinde, that the chief articles of export from Zambezia, neglecting sugar, of which some account was given in a preceding chapter, are, in order of importance, Ground-nuts, Bees-wax, Rubber, Ivory, and various kinds of beans; and as it is evident that they must be collected and sent down by somebody, we will now devote a little space to describing the actual position of the settler, and give some description of his circumstances and environment.

We have already seen, in the chapter dealing with the Prazoes, that a certain number of Europeans and others exist in those large areas; but as they have been already more or less referred to, we will deal first of all with the British Indian merchant, incorrectly known to Europeans as the "Banyan," and to the natives as the "Monyé." There can be little doubt that this type of Indian is singularly well equipped for the native trade, practically the whole of which has for a long time

* Mr. Stanley Hewitt-Fletcher, who is also Agent for the Nyasaland Protectorate, and has passed many years in these parts of Africa.



A TYPICAL "BANYAN."

past been in his hands. Not only is he wonderfully impervious to the effects of climate, but he possesses that inestimable faculty of easily acquiring a fluent knowledge of native tongues which at once places him on a footing of easy, jocular familiarity with the members of the tribes whose produce he desires to exploit. He has successfully monopolised the whole of this class of commerce in all the extent of the Zambezi Valley, if one should omit centres like Chinde and Tete, where one or two European firms and trading companies maintain agents whose lives must be of a singularly restful and tranquil description, and whose experiences probably do not include many of those momentous incidents which, in more populous centres, invest the pursuit of business at times with an air of adventurous uncertainty. I should think it extremely probable that in no part of the world are there keener traders than the British Indians. No profit is too small or inconsiderable; no time too long to devote to the successful driving of a bargain. His manner of life, domestic in the extreme, is nevertheless so thrifty, so frugal, and his wants, bounded by a little curry and rice, are so inexpensive, that few there are who cannot remit a few rupees to India at the end of the year, to add to the store which, when business cares and struggles in the waste places of Africa are over, shall support them in an honoured old age in Goa or Bombay.

The caste of Indian most frequently seen is the Mohammedan. A few Parsis are met with, it is true, but these, with a small admixture of Hindus, remain in the coast ports, and rarely venture very

far afield—certainly they never establish themselves among the native villages as do the Mohammedans or so-called “Banyans.” It is an interesting sight (to all but immigration restriction agents) to witness the arrival of a steamer in an East African port coming from Bombay. Her fore-deck resembles a fair, spread all over as it is with the bedding, personal property, and other effects of the British Indians, who, in flowing white robes and glittering skull-caps and waistcoats, gaze anxiously at this land of Africa where all hope to amass a moderate competence at least. They are accompanied in many cases by their wives, meek, brown-skinned, not uncomely women, with long, jet-black, sleek hair, and many bracelets, anklets, ear and nose rings of silver and gold, some even enriched with precious stones of no mean value. Then the feminine clothing is another perfect joy to one, especially at the moment of disembarkation, when each displays her very best and most fascinating costume. The colours are amazingly vivid, but, for all that, they seem to blend harmoniously into artistic wholes, in every way proper and suitable to the clear, polished reddish-brown of their skins. The only other occasion on which one is permitted to feast one’s eyes on the brilliant conflagrations of colour which their clothing presents is on that of the procession of the Mohammedans at Ramadan, when, with flags flying and to the music of their drums, the true believers march through the streets singing shrill, unmusical passages from the Koran. In addition to the type of Banyan mentioned, another neighbouring tribe of Asiatics from the

Portuguese Indian Colony of Goa is to some extent represented. The latter, however, is, as a rule, indistinguishable from his British neighbour, and his methods of doing business and mode of life are essentially the same.

These men intermingle freely with native women, and a type of half-caste is fairly numerous which exercises no small influence over the native tribes among which it has made its appearance. Especially in the more ancient settlements are these offspring of the Oriental and the African most frequently to be found, and it is only fair to state that the Indian parent displays great solicitude for their education and future welfare. Many of these men may be found in positions of no small responsibility, for which their Indian sagacity combined with their African robustness very singularly fit them. Thus, apart from employment in the establishments of the British Indians themselves, it is not unusual to find them occupying posts of some responsibility in the service of the government of the Province of Portuguese East Africa.

Indians who are not actually born on the East African coast or its hinterland usually arrive there as young men and engage themselves as salesmen in the shops and stores of such of their countrymen as are already established. At the end of such engagement, they endeavour, as a rule, to start business on their own account, and as there is rarely an opportunity of doing so in the towns, the enterprising young "Banyan" invests a portion of his savings in the purchase of a small stock of native barter goods, and, with these borne on the

heads of a few native carriers, fares forth into the unknown, or, at any rate, into some outlying district where opposition is slight and native villages many. Here he builds a good-sized hut, and, arranging his calico, beads, matches, brass wire, and other tempting wares on roughly constructed shelves, publishes to the small surrounding community that the new establishment is now open for the transaction of business, and commends his future to Allah.

His cash turnover is not, it must be confessed, at first encouraging; but with a natural shrewdness sharpened by his recent commercial training, considerable transactions in native produce soon enabled him to realise that, though cash is not yet plentiful, he has, in a short time, succeeded in showing a profit in kind. The floor of his hut is now cumbered with sacks of maize, millet, oil-seeds; ground-nuts in matting peep from beneath the *kitanda* * upon which his siesta is taken; a large mat at one end of the living-room holds a heap of dirty-looking pieces of valuable bees-wax, and a not inconsiderable quantity of half-cut balls of greyish rubber fill up a soap-box in the angle by the solitary unglazed window. The budding trader looks around with satisfaction, feeling that his future is now full of promise. A journey to the nearest European centre shortly afterwards enables the entire accumulation to be disposed of, and a credit opened on the strength of the accruing profits for a much larger stock. In a year or two the small native boy who has afforded him hitherto all the assistance he required proves insufficient to

* An Arab or Indian bedstead.

cope with the rapidly increasing volume of trade. His master must perforce send to Bombay for a relation to assist him, and makes a point of selecting one with a family of children, for, as he truly says, "Small relations are cheaper than grown-up strangers, and do almost as much." Thereafter you shall see him from time to time engaging more and more assistants, opening small branch establishments all over the country, and getting gradually into his hands the threads of a sound business concern. It is now, however, clearly time for a move in the direction of the nearest populous town or trading centre. He must open a large, important-looking, well-lighted shop, where, whilst awaiting custom, he can lean over the counter and estimate his profits as he eyes the towering shelves full of valuable stock destined to supply his far-flung branches. At this stage he begins to remit surplus funds to India, to learn the European language of the country (English or Portuguese, as the case may be), and to acquire a working knowledge of local law and custom. Thenceforward a valuable stock, with many avenues for its disposal, buttressed by a sufficient bank account, proclaims the success of a prosperous merchant; and should he not overstep the bounds of caution and give reckless credit to persons incapable of meeting their engagements (a weakness not altogether confined to the Indian), he passes through life growing richer and richer, and in the fulness of time returns to beloved Bombay, and dies in the soul-satisfying odour of distinguished commercial success.

The foregoing outline sketches fairly accurately

how those Indian merchants who have succeeded in business attained their object, and some there unquestionably are who have become exceedingly wealthy. In addition to the foregoing, who, as I have endeavoured to show, are engaged entirely in commercial pursuits, there are in various portions of the district not a few Indians, usually, I believe, natives of, or descendants of natives of Goa, whose Portuguese nationality has enabled them to attain positions of very considerable responsibility. One of these, a man of ripe age and considerable educational attainments, exercises minor magisterial powers conferred upon him many years ago by the government, and these he wields with such judgment and moderation that he has come to be greatly respected by the surrounding tribes. This man has, I understand, some slight African blood-admixture. He is the head of a numerous family, who all, curiously enough, are engaged in pursuits of a character somewhat different from those of the average British Indian. They are considerable stock-raisers, and among the few persons of this race possessing cattle to any important extent. In addition, the heads of the various branches of the family possess extensive landed property, and dwell in large, well-built houses. One of the juniors of this family entered my service several years ago, and I have often been struck by the exceptional intelligence of which he continues to give frequent and unmistakable indications. Some time ago, in addition to his ordinary household duties, he enthusiastically assumed the responsibilities of a *chauffeur*, displaying an aptitude for

mechanics as surprising as it was exceptional, and has for some time past proved entirely efficient in the latter somewhat unusual capacity.

Where, however, the Indian—be he British or Portuguese—displays his superiority over the native of Africa is in the quickness and accuracy with which he is enabled to gauge the shallower mental capacity of the negro, and to profit by the indecision of the African's slower-working mind. He possesses, in addition, no small amount of personal dignity, which also goes far to impress the native, always susceptible to influences wielded by individuals whose customs and manners of life he only partly comprehends. These two advantages have in the past enabled natives of both British and Portuguese India to accumulate considerable wealth in the Mozambique Province generally, and especially in the district known as Zambezia, where they are especially numerous. It is indeed surprising to note how in the older settlements of the Province such as Ibo, Mozambique, Parapat, and Quelimane, the Indian merchant and trader has succeeded in securing so large a proportion of the native traffic. His Eastern costume of flowing white, and the pleasing glitter of his gold-embroidered cap and waistcoat, add an Oriental touch to the African settlements which goes far to heighten their not invariable picturesqueness, and doubtless duly impresses the native mind with the superiority of the Asiatic both inwardly and outwardly. The habits of these men are the last word of frugality, in some cases almost amounting to asceticism. Their food consists chiefly of rice

with a small quantity of curry. Weak tea is the favourite beverage, all form of alcohol being carefully avoided as being contrary to the teachings of the great prophet of their faith. During the whole of the month of October, the feast of Ramadan, they fast from dawn until evening, not even drinking water until the sun has disappeared. It is at this season of the year that their very interesting and not unpicturesque festival processions, to which I have made some reference in the early portion of this chapter, take place. Another valuable characteristic which the Indian possesses is his unceasing activity. There is probably no more hard-working or patient tradesman engaged in commerce. From an early hour until nine or ten o'clock at night, his doors are open to custom. Recreation as we understand it he disdains, pleasure for him consisting chiefly in counting his gains and estimating his often not inconsiderable profits. Even the small boys of eight or nine years of age are rarely if ever to be seen amusing themselves as do those of other races. Already assisting their parents in the shops, they have even at this early age assumed that air of grave responsibility which clings to them through life like their own shadows.

From the foregoing it will have been seen that the Zambezi Valley is very largely frequented by Indians, chiefly of the trading classes. On the recently completed railway from Port Herald to Blantyre the employment is, I understand, contemplated of a considerable number of natives of India, to replace certain of the more expensive

European employees. This has also, I believe, been done on the Mombasa Railway with very successful results, and proves that in clerical as well as other capacities the class of Indian selected for these purposes makes a very efficient railway servant.

We now pass to another type of Oriental who is found in all parts of Zambezia as well as throughout the Mozambique Province, namely the Portuguese native of Goa. The Goanese is a native of Portuguese India, but instead of devoting his energies to trade and commerce, he is usually found discharging clerical duties in the offices of the various European merchants and traders. In some portions of the coast, notably at Zanzibar and Mombasa, some members of the Goanese community have established large commercial houses, and doubtless do a considerable amount of business; but in Mozambique they have not reached this height of importance. Dressed in European clothes, speaking perfect Portuguese, and often fluent English, the Goanese makes a good if not strikingly active settler. Curiously enough, however, the Goanese possesses a somewhat weedy constitution, is exceedingly susceptible to malaria and other tropical diseases, and, once attacked, is a shockingly bad patient, often dying, I am convinced, from sheer inability to make up his mind to recover.

Another type of settler whose ministrations are not of a character calculated to do very much for the future of Zambezia is the native labour agent and recruiter. The number of the natives who leave the Zambezi Valley for work in other parts

of Africa is at present not very large perhaps, but it shows, I understand, an increasing tendency. I confess I do not see any wisdom in permitting the recruiting of labourers in portions of the country where their presence is a present necessity. There are in Portuguese East Africa, in many districts even as yet imperfectly known, hundreds of thousands of natives who at present are mainly occupied in pursuits of doubtful utility. The Nyasa Company's territory, as well as the Mozambique Company's concession, are good examples of this, and so is the district of Mozambique to the south of the Lurio River. To my mind, therefore, it were much more logical to provide employment for these hitherto useless savages at the mines of the Witwatersrand, in preference to depopulating the Zambezi, whose tribes are not only perfectly friendly and well-disposed, but actually necessary to the prosecution of existing industries.

At Tete itself there are the representatives of one or two European trading houses. This settlement has now come to be regarded as the half-way house to the rising colonies of North-Eastern Rhodesia, North-Western Rhodesia, and one or two other distant centres in the far interior where Europeans are struggling to let in the light of civilisation. From Tete to Fort Jameson, the capital of the first-named division, a good road extends, and each year, I understand, shows an increase in the imports carried over it. The European trading houses of Tete, and especially the local branch of the African Lakes Corporation, receive and forward on the bulk of the cargo and passengers.

“The Lakes Company,” as this useful commercial body is called for short, has had an interesting, indeed an almost romantic career. After the establishment in 1876 of the Church of Scotland Mission, which still labours in the Shiré Highlands, and is known throughout the country as the “Blantyre Mission” from the circumstance that its headquarters are located at that place, it was soon found essential by its supporters in Scotland to incorporate an association to assist it by constructing roads, providing trade goods, provisions, and necessities, and by relieving it, in so far as was possible, of the preoccupations attendant upon business details. As a result, the original African Lakes Company sprang into being, and that body has numbered among its *employés* several men of great strength of character and resource, whose assistance to the administration of the country, which was shortly afterwards undertaken by the British Government, has on several occasions of stress and crisis been of great value, and proved a powerful factor in the subjugation and pacification of the tribes of Nyasaland. From these small beginnings, therefore, there grew up the present well-organised, far-reaching corporation, with its many comfortable—I had almost written palatial—river and lake steamers, which have revolutionised transport on the inland waterways, its dozens of barges and lighters, its trading *dépôts* all over South Central Africa, and the many conveniences with which foresight and prudent management have enabled it to endow that rising country.

Still, there is no doubt, when regard is had to

the present restricted volume of business which flows spasmodically through Tete to the northward, the lot of the agent of any commercial undertaking must be one in which he is in the unhappy condition of having far too little to do. I call this condition an unhappy one because men so circumstanced, unless they be gifted with a rare measure of mental resource, must find the enforced idleness very trying. I want you to imagine the following as one day among almost all the days of the year.

It is soon after dawn, and in the cool, grey morning light a small native bearing a cup of tea or coffee enters the open door of an occupied bedroom, his ears being greeted the while by snores from the mosquito net within which he sets his tray upon a small table, displacing for the purpose a number of sixpenny novels, a candle-lamp which has burned itself out, and half a dozen "Three Castles" cigarette-ends. The occupant awakens, faint-heartedly swallows the contents of the cup, throws back the mosquito muslin, and, thrusting his feet into a pair of large slippers, strides through the doorway on to the verandah of the house. The servants are sweeping down the steps, and putting to rights the dining-room and other apartments. With a cursory glance round, the now thoroughly awakened agent plunges his head and face into some water, and, satisfied for the moment with this partial ablution, and without changing his pyjamas, walks down the quintal or compound to the store. It is now about 6 o'clock, and he is soon after joined by his assistant in similar raiment. Desultory business is transacted to an unbroken accompani-

ment of cigarettes, Indian merchants in snowy kanzus enter and discuss the opening or extension of credits, some few sales are effected, and about 10 o'clock a move is made in the direction of the dwelling-house, a bath is taken, white clothing assumed, and breakfast partaken of. This breakfast is really luncheon—the tiffin of India. Thereafter long chairs are sought, and, as the heat is now appreciable, a more or less prolonged siesta follows. About 2.30 another journey is made to the store, and after a little more business the premises are closed, and towards 4 o'clock comes recreation in the form of an uninteresting walk over well-remembered paths, or a little lawn-tennis on a court whose lines are scarcely distinguishable, and with players whose energies are expended as a rule in other directions. At 7 o'clock comes dinner, preceded as a rule by many *apéritifs*, and by 9.30 it is bed-time. To these days of weary monotony there is rarely the smallest relief. Every five weeks or so a mail comes from Europe, and a day or two afterwards life sinks back into its tranquil groove once more.

There can be little doubt, therefore, that to an unresourceful person, one, for example, not given to reading or study, conditions of life such as I have just described must not only soon become highly uncongenial, but a positive danger in the facilities which undue leisure provides for the adoption of distractions of a questionable character. I suppose there is no help for it, but I think ill-health would be avoided, and less opportunity given for contracting dangerous and sometimes

ineradicable habits, if *employés* of European firms were not kept in such isolated positions for periods longer than were absolutely necessary. Man, and especially young man, is by nature a gregarious animal, and if he be arbitrarily removed from the society of his kind during long periods of time, he naturally suffers either in health or efficiency, but usually in both. To government officials, of course, these remarks do not so much apply. They have, as a rule, large districts to supervise, taxes to collect, magisterial powers to exercise, and their work possesses much greater interest and is much more engrossing than the frequently uphill tasks which are often the portion of the agent of commerce.

Dotted about on the great river, there are a few other types of European settler, to which a few words may perhaps be devoted. These are, as a rule, men who have spent many years in roaming about the country, have completely lost touch with their friends at home, and have sunk lower and lower in the social scale until they have become in the end almost as uncivilised as the natives in whose midst they dwell, and whose habits and mode of life they have more or less adopted.

I remember several years ago that, whilst passing through a portion of the country near the Zambezi River, I was puzzled for some days by hearing the natives who formed my escort referring from time to time to a "Mzungu," or white man, who was said to be living not far from the line my journey would traverse. They called him by a native name, but all were unanimous in stating that he was an

Englishman. I determined, therefore, to seek him out, and this is what I found.

Not far from a small river which flowed into the Zambezi, there was a clearing in the forest, that is to say, trees had been cut down over an area of a little less than an acre. In the midst of this space stood a house consisting of one room. It was built of mud, with a thatched roof, the interior, as well as the pathetic attempt at a verandah, being also floored with mud. Seated on the floor, and clad in nothing but a calico loin-cloth, I saw the gaunt, bearded figure of a man, not old in years, but prematurely aged by solitude and intellectual starvation. He was languidly cleaning a basket of native beans, muttering to himself the while. In the room itself there were, so far as I remember, only two articles, a large native bedstead—a mere oblong frame with cord stretched from side to side and from top to bottom, upon which a couple of blankets were spread—and an upturned box which served as a table. There was no window, and the door was the usual native contrivance of reeds, with a transverse pole running through string loops at either side. As my shadow crossed the threshold, the proprietor looked up, and after a moment's scrutiny said: "Ah, I see you are English. It is some time since I saw one of my own kind. I sometimes almost forget that I am one." And he laughed a laugh which was not good to hear. Poor fellow, I stayed a couple of days with him, and made him free of my stores, the simplest of which was an unspeakable luxury to him. He had been living on native food for longer than he

would tell me, and the basket of beans he was preparing as I entered was destined to form the only dish at his evening meal. He told me he had no other ambition in life; that he meant to live and die in the wilds, and among the natives of whom he was almost one. For him there was no degradation in such a life; long custom had blunted his perception of such a feeling. He possessed but little in the way of civilised clothing, and very seldom had occasion to wear it. An old Martini rifle enabled him occasionally to shoot some beast, the meat of which he would sell to a passing river steamer, when he would endeavour, not always successfully, to obtain part of the price paid in cartridges, and thus maintain his small stock of ammunition. During the time I spent there, I saw him perform practically every daily task which the native sets himself, for he had no attendants, not even a small boy. He would collect his own firewood, cook his own food, navigate with skill a small "dug-out" canoe, and on one occasion, when he had accompanied me to find some meat for my carriers, he shouldered a reedbuck weighing 70 or 80 lb., and carried it fully six miles without displaying any fatigue. It was an unedifying sight to see an Englishman so brutalised, but there can be no doubt that it is a condition which must follow so demoralising a step as complete severance from one's own kind.

I know of another case, the beginning of which was not wholly dissimilar from the foregoing one, but here the individual, whose Scottish shrewdness refused to be extinguished by the brain-petrifying

influence of years of solitude, took unto himself a wife, a comely half-caste lady, through whose family influence he succeeded in obtaining possession of two or three head of cattle. By judicious management he also found himself enabled to settle upon a small but very fertile piece of land close to the Zambezi, upon which he built a large and by no means uncomfortable native house, planted a number of coconut palms, and for a number of years—until his death, in fact—lived a primitive but by no means unenviable existence. He went down to Chinde from time to time, and was much esteemed by his countrymen in that place. Still, although he did not go so far as to discard European garb, or live wholly removed from human society as in the case of the first individual mentioned, there can be no doubt that his manner of life and unintellectual surroundings had caused at the time of his death very appreciable deterioration in his mental faculties.

There are, I believe, several such men as the above even now leading the sort of life on the banks of the Zambezi which has gained for them the distinctive by-name of “white kaffirs”; but the subject is a sad one, and perhaps sufficient reference has already been made to it.

On the island formed by the Zambezi, Shiré, and Zui-Zuie Rivers, to which some allusion was made in a preceding chapter, a very important and energetic attempt is in progress by a French syndicate to cultivate cotton, sugar, and other products, and, I believe, with every prospect of final success. Certainly, if the venture attain to any-

thing like the importance of the large Zambezi Sugar Companies, it will fulfil a most desirable mission in affording further demonstration of the value of the rich soil through which the waters of the Zambezi flow. I have passed its headquarters recently, but, unhappily, had no time to land there; the appearance on the river-bank of the Shiré at Bompona of powerful pumping plant, however, evidenced the earnest commencement of important work.

On the summit of the splendid plateau of neighbouring Mount Morambala, a large coffee plantation has been established, which I understand to have given moderately satisfactory results. Further experiments are now in progress, however, with a view to ascertaining whether a more sheltered position may not prove better adapted to the growth of this shrub.

The principles usually followed in the cultivation of the coffee berry are more or less as follows. The ground having been selected and cleared of grass and undergrowth, as many large, well-grown trees as possible being spared for the advantage afforded by their shade from sun and wind, the *débris* of bush is collected and burned, the ashes being spread over the soil so as to mingle as much as possible with it. The future plantation is now carefully marked off and "pitted," that is to say, at a distance of seven or eight feet apart, rows of holes or pits are dug, eighteen inches wide and of similar depth. These are left open for a couple of months or so to harden the earth crust round the inside, and are then filled in with earth enriched with manure if

possible, but, failing that, with wood ashes, a small stick being thrust into the exact centre of each to mark the spot which the young coffee plant will occupy. All this while the latter has been growing from seed in a sheltered, well-tended nursery. At the commencement of the rainy season, the seedlings are planted out in the pits, and thereafter require but little attention beyond that necessitated by measures for their periodical weeding.

The first crop makes its appearance in three years. During the months of June and July the berries are carefully picked and subjected to a process called pulping. This removes the sweet, cherry-like matter surrounding the actual beans, two of which are found in each "cherry." * This process over, they are placed in a receptacle in which they are permitted to ferment for a couple of days, and are then washed with copious sluicings of water to carry off the sweet, fleshy matter which forms their external envelope. Large cane mats are then obtained, and the coffee beans spread out upon them and carefully dried in the sun. They are then sacked up.

Settlers engaged in coffee-planting in the neighbouring colony of Nyasaland usually commence by obtaining an area of from 500 to 1,000 acres of land. This they plant out with coffee by degrees, as a rule, the first year's work producing probably 50 to 100 acres of young coffee trees, the second year a similar space being added to the plantation. At the end of the third year, the first 50 acres yield

* The word "cherry" has been widely adapted to designate the coffee-berry, owing to the resemblance the latter bears to that fruit.

their maiden crop, which, in favourable circumstances, is said to amount to anything between 12 and 15 cwt. of coffee berries per acre, whilst, in very poor conditions, 1 to 3 cwt. is collected. When I was serving in Nyasaland some years ago, coffee exported thence was sold in London at prices ranging from 90s. to 112s. per cwt., and more than one planter succeeded in making a considerable return on his initial outlay, which might have been anything from £500 to £1,000. Naturally these sums would not provide for the expenditure incurred in the furnishing of machinery, or of large brick pulping-vats, water-races, or other similar conveniences ; but, taken as a whole, they would at that time (and doubtless still) enable a planter to commence modestly, and with every prospect of success.

Of course, neither in Zambezia nor in Nyasaland would so restricted a capital permit a settler to provide himself with anything beyond sheer necessities. His house would have to be of mud, his luxuries few and far between, and, to enable him still further to economise, his native labourers would require to be paid in calico imported from home at the lowest possible prices and rates.

I have stayed several times at the houses of African coffee-planters, as well as planters of other products, and exceedingly well have I been entertained. These men are kindness and hospitality personified, and thoroughly appreciate an opportunity afforded by the presence of a stranger to exchange views on every possible subject, from the efficacy of the last invented agricultural implement to the inefficiency of the most recent action of the

Concert of the Powers in regard to the question of Macedonian reform. Probably few pursuits serve to bring a man's resourcefulness so thoroughly into play, and a good clue is often furnished to the personality of an individual by the manner in which his surroundings are arranged and his homestead ordered. It is true that the mud walls which form the interior of so many planters' living rooms do not give scope for much in the way of decoration or embellishment, neither does his thatched house of two or three divisions lend itself to much architectural skill. I have, nevertheless, seen a great deal done in both directions, whilst in the laying out of the adjacent gardens, and in the plantation of trim walks and avenues, great success has been most strikingly attained.

The pasturage afforded in many parts of the Zambezi is, I think, eminently suitable for the raising of large herds of cattle. The Zambezia Company has succeeded most encouragingly at Inyangoma, whilst in the neighbourhood of Sena the Mozambique Company possessed a year or two ago large herds which had sprung from very small beginnings. I consider, from the settler's point of view, and in combination with other pursuits, the raising of cattle would prove a remunerative and fairly certain source of income in well-selected areas, and I have no doubt that in time Zambezi cattle will come to be as well known as those which now bear the distinctive names of Somaliland and Madagascar.

At present, apart from the herds mentioned in the preceding paragraph, the small quantities of

cattle existing are the property of the sugar companies, certain Indians, and the clergy of the Shupanga Mission Station. The natives do not possess cattle, and I heard it stated, with I do not know how much truth, that they are not encouraged to own them. This seems inexplicable when one considers how costly they are on the coast-line of the Province, and how profitable their export thence, as well as that of their hides, might become.

On the whole, I suppose Zambezia cannot be said to possess many settlers, when account is taken of the immensity of its area. In the north-west portion, where the principal mineral deposits are situated, a small scattered group of Europeans are endeavouring, in the face of great natural difficulties, to extract gold from what are undeniably rich mining propositions. The success which has so far attended their efforts has been, I think, in every way most thoroughly deserved, and I hope that with increasing facilities of transport this industry may attract very considerable capital and labour to the gold-fields. I learn from the Governor of the district that a considerable recent influx of prospectors has taken place into the copper-fields, and to what extent soever the saying may have passed into almost proverbial use that the location of mines of great value comes usually rather as a surprise than as the result of scientific prediction, I feel there is in this case substantial justification for the forecast that mineral industries will one day have much to do with the future development of this portion of the valley of the Zambezi

CHAPTER XI

THE NATIVES : WA-SENA — A-NYANJA — ANTHRO-
POLOGY—TRIBAL ORGANISATION—VILLAGES

To the two tribal divisions whose names head this chapter might perhaps be added two or three more, namely, the Wa-Nyungwe of the Tete District, the Wa-Tonga of the region of the Barué, and the A-Mahindo of the coast. Between these last-mentioned, however, and the Wa-Sena of the south bank of the Zambezi, there is so little difference, to all external appearance, that it is perhaps better to allow them to fall into their two more important tribal divisions, those of the Wa-Sena and A-Nyanja.

It is customary, I am aware, in discussing the natives of any given part of Africa, to attempt the impossible, and, by dint of ingenious theories, possessing probably not a trace of actual foundation, to trace them back for more or less prolonged periods and to dogmatise as to who they are and where they came from. Such is not my intention. The African we are about to consider is the African of to-day, and we will regard him not in the skin-clad cannibalism of his long-dead past, but rather in the douce, calico-covered decency of the twentieth century.

The so-called Sena people occupy a large section of the region of Zambezia; not only the portion bearing the name which has been given to them, but thence eastward towards the sea, and southward in the direction of the Pungwe River, if we except a small scarcely recognised division inhabiting the basin of the Vunduzi who call themselves Wa-Téwé, and have adopted a *patois* of their own, which is, nevertheless, only a slight variation of the chi-Sena spoken throughout the limits I have just outlined.

But although divided by tribal designation, by habit, and, to some extent, by language, it would still be ridiculous to say that there is much difference in the people themselves, or that they are essentially distinct, the one division from the others. That is to say, the physical characteristics of the one tribe are in all respects similar to those of others, and, therefore, an average individual brought from Tete would be, to all intents and purposes, indistinguishable from the representative of a family brought up on the coast.

Without being of striking physique or muscular development, the Zambezan native as a whole is of a distinctly good type. He is broad-chested, clean-limbed, and not, as a rule, excessively black. The colours most observed are dull chocolate-brown ranging to palish yellow, and indicating, I consider, very considerable European and Arab blood admixture. Of course it must be remembered that the Zambezi has, as we have seen in the earlier portion of this book, been the resort of members of pale-skinned races for many centuries,

and there can be no doubt that the intercourse which took place between them and the indigenous tribes during this prolonged period must have had a very considerable effect upon the colour of the tribes as a whole ; and this view of the question is greatly supported by the much nearer approach to blackness observable in the people lying more to the north and westward, who came but rarely into contact with persons of pale complexion. Thus, certain dwellers in Nyasaland who inhabit the shores of Lake Shirwa and the course of the Lurio River, as well as others from the basin of the Luapula, are perhaps among the blackest I remember to have seen. The curious pink of the inside of the hands and on the soles of the feet is accounted for among some of the Zambezi people by the superstition that, when the first black man was made, the Creator had completed his colouring so far as it now extends when he was called away to eat, and forgot to finish it.

I should consider the average height of the natives of this part of Africa would probably be about 5 ft. 7 in. Many cases of considerably greater stature are, of course, common, but I should be inclined to look upon that named as the mean. The chest measurement for that height is probably about 34 in. A good medium height measurement for the women would perhaps be 5 ft. 1 in.

Of striking negroid appearance, all the local tribes display the same well-known type of features, with its projecting forehead, dolicocephalic craneal formation, short, wide nose, spreading at the nostril

and low over the bridge, prominent cheek-bones, thick, everted lips, and weak chin. The eyes are usually black or dark brown, deeply set, and possessing short, very thick, curling lashes and well-marked eyebrows. The ears are small, well-shaped, and set close to the side of the head, and almost all the tribes of this part of Africa bore large holes into the ear-lobes, in which various articles are carried, such as rats and mice for the evening meal,* tobacco, cigarettes, and other small matters. In spite of these general facial characteristics, however, it is not unusual to meet with Africans from these districts possessing features of much greater delicacy than those to which the foregoing description could be taken as applying; but although this fineness of feature is seldom accompanied by more than average paleness of colour, I have sometimes thought it might be traceable to European or Arab influences. The teeth are invariably good. Among the Sena people the two centre incisors in the upper jaw are filed into the shape of an inverted V. Probably the most repulsive type of all, as it is happily the rarest, is the Albino, who, owing to his unlovely and unusual appearance, is certainly not a person of much consideration in the native communities, although at times he seems to think a great deal of himself. The dreadful feature which is most noticeable among the African Albinos is the ghastly eczema which often covers their dull, unhealthy-looking white skins, exhibiting at times the nystagmus produced by the non-absorption of light by the pigment which should be present in the

* A custom chiefly noticeable among the Wa-Tonga of the Barué.

lower strata. The woolly head-covering, moreover, is of a dirty yellowish white. I have seen no cases of Zanthism, although I understand it is not unknown.

The growth which crowns the head of the native of these regions is of dull black, and curls itself all over the scalp in an unbroken covering of tight little circles. The same woolly hair occurs on the pubes, and under the arm-pits, where, however, it is somewhat less harsh. Some cases occur in which the chest is seen to exhibit a thick growth, which appears in small bunches; in these latter, hairs on the legs are also noticeable. In my experience, however, hirsute adornment of the body is exceptional; but where it occurs the negro does not attempt to remove it, as he would in other parts of the continent with which I am familiar, confining his tonsorial operations to the shaving of his head in the hot weather, a habit adopted for reasons of cleanliness as well as of coolness. In the southern part of the region, I have seen natives who allow their hair to grow to considerable length, and even plait it into small tails. Hair on the face is not very general, although in the case of a journey up the Zambezi isolated cases may be observed of very well developed beards, and long if somewhat thinly grown moustaches.

The women, it must be frankly confessed, are not very comely to European eyes. They are more punctilious in shaving the head than are the men, and, in addition, regard it as a point of personal cleanliness to remove all body hairs also. Their bare skulls, for one thing, contribute largely

to this undesirable appearance, and, added to such unnecessary embellishments as lip-rings sometimes of immense diameter, and nose-rings which twist that organ out of all shape, complete a whole which would have few attractions for the passing traveller. Some of the younger women are, nevertheless, extremely well proportioned. They are broad of hip, with singularly fine posterior development, whilst the rounded, shapely breasts stand boldly out from the thorax by reason of the upright, graceful carriage imparted by the weight of the heavy loads they balance upon the head.

A very considerable amount of tattooing is common to both sexes, but the women practise this custom to a much greater extent than the men. Whether the various systems observed possess any special significance or not I have not been able to discover. So far my inquiries on this point have always elicited a negative reply; but it is, of course, impossible to say whether I was wilfully deceived or not. The cicatrised lines are obtained by making incisions with a sharp-pointed instrument, and rubbing in the astringent juice of some tree or shrub. The marks thus produced stand up somewhat above the surface, and appear to be slightly darker in colour. In the case of the women, tattooing is commenced at an early age—at four or five years, I was told—and is continued until long after they have borne children, a circumstance which strengthens my suspicions of their possessing some hidden purport. The whole of the upper part of the body above and below the *mammæ* is thus symmetrically lined, the cicatrisation descending

and forming intricately wrought patterns all over the abdominal region, and over the front of the legs from the groin to within an inch or two of the knee. The back is similarly if less lavishly ornamented as far down as the buttocks. The men also affect the same custom, but usually the cuts forming the pattern selected are larger, even as the detail is less intricate, and greater attention is paid to the face than is the case among the females. It is said that at times great suffering is caused by the setting up of septic inflammation. Among some of the Makua of the northern portion of the Province of Mozambique, the frightful deep scars which they produce in the forehead, cheeks, and chin are so truly awful as to give them an appearance of the utmost repulsiveness. As I have just stated, the carriage of the women is extremely graceful and dignified, and, owing to the hard nature of the toil to which they are daily subjected from an early age, they possess very fine muscular development. Their hands and feet are small and shapely, and their voices not unmusical.

After the birth of children, however, youth appears quickly to fade, so that at quite an early period of life a woman of Zambezia looks quite *passée*; the breasts lose their elasticity, and hang down almost to the navel; she becomes stout, and at eighteen or nineteen has often the jaded appearance of a woman of thirty.*

Both eyesight and hearing are exceedingly good.

* At thirty most native women appear to be very much older than they really are.

I suppose no European who had not been brought up among them could possibly find game so quickly and unerringly as his native gun-bearer, whilst they can carry on a conversation over extraordinary distances in so low a tone that the European ear cannot possibly catch the words at all. It may be that the singular state of perfection to which they have developed these two senses may have had the effect of reacting upon the organ of smell, which is by no means so acute, a fact fraught with no little inconvenience, and even some suffering at times, to the unfortunate European who may find himself travelling in their midst.

The men are extremely hardy, and capable of supporting an amount of privation which probably few other races could equal. They will cheerfully undertake a journey of several days' duration, with no other provisions than a few cobs of maize, or a small bundle of millet. On rising in the morning they do not eat as a rule, or, if they do, not more than a mouthful or two of some cold remains from the previous night's repast. At midday they enjoy a moderately full meal, but at night, soon after sunset, they eat in very large quantities, and, if meat form any part of the fare provided, will consume immoderate amounts without prejudicial result. On the other hand, they can subsist for days on a very slender food allowance, so long as a sufficiency of water be assured, as, apparently, want of water is a privation which is much more severely felt than lack of food.

On many occasions, in this and neighbouring parts of Africa, I have undertaken journeys necessi-

tating the employment of considerable numbers of native carriers, and I have found that their endurance whilst so employed was remarkable. It is my rule on these occasions to limit the loads which they bear upon their heads to fifty pounds, and one would suppose such a weight to be sufficient; but to this not inconsiderable burden they will add fully seven or eight pounds, consisting of their own impedimenta in the shape of earthenware cooking pots, sleeping mats, sweet potatoes or cassava, with various relishes in the shape of dried fish or out-of-date buck-meat intended for addition to their daily ration of maize or millet flour. If in the course of the day's march a beast be shot, they will eagerly divide the meat among them, thereby increasing their burdens still further, rather than leave a morsel behind. Thus loaded, I have been able to march an average of eighteen to twenty miles a day without undue fatigue to the carriers. The portage of machilas is a somewhat specialised form of labour, and requires training in order to obtain the necessary smoothness of step; it must be exceedingly fatiguing to the men, who, when so employed, especially in the Tete district, do very little else. I have travelled in these unpleasant conveyances borne on the shoulders of a team drawn from the Wa-Sena tribe whose gait has been so free from the usual jolting one experiences in other parts of the country that one could read or sleep with ease. The favourite employment of the native of the Zambezi Valley as a whole is, I think, on steamers or barges. It is hard to imagine a lighter-hearted class of men than the

merry dozen or so who may be seen poling a barge up or down the river on any day of the year. Their songs are quite musical, and are sung in excellent time and tune coinciding with the movements of their bodies and poles. The paddling of boats and canoes is also second nature to them, and with a little training they become expert oarsmen. In the water they are strong and fast swimmers of considerable endurance, but this is not an exercise very largely practised owing to the numerous crocodiles which infest the principal waterways.

The salutation between natives is as follows. Between men, the hands are clapped with varying intervals between the sounds. A woman responds to this form of greeting by bending the knees slightly, and making a stiff, short bob-curtsey. She does this in the case either of a European or a fellow-countryman. A native meeting a white man bends his body slightly at the hips, and scrapes his feet backward one after the other. Among the younger generation an awkward attempt at a military salute is often added. In remoter regions I have seen the parties on meeting both kneel facing each other, and, whilst in that position, clap the hands as described, the final beats being given with the palms slightly hollowed, which has the effect of somewhat deepening the sound of the claps.

In reposing, the tribes of this part of Africa rarely assume any other position than that known as sitting on the heels. If very fatigued a man will lie on his back or stomach; but when assembled round the fire, or in conversation in the village, he

simply doubles his legs beneath him, and sits abruptly down, his knees on a level with his chin, and his hands clasped round them.

On the whole, so long as he is dealing or conversing with people of his own race, the Zambezan may be correctly described as light-hearted, cheery, and voluble—voluble to a degree. His command of language is fluent in the extreme, and he never suffers interruption until his remarks are concluded. Should any untimely comment be embarrassingly interjected, with praiseworthy simplicity more efficacious than hours of barren wrangling, he merely elevates his tones until contention is drowned in a volume of sound. It will thus be understood that the locality of an argument sustained by three or four natives of average lung-power and volubility is speedily untenable to anybody who does not wish to be permanently deafened. But with persons of a superior race, the negro is scarcely ever at his ease, no matter whether linguistic difficulties are present or not. He does not even yet understand the white man, and things incomprehensible are ever those which he regards with misgiving akin to suspicion; it thus happens that the face which is the most mobile and expressive in dialogue with an equal, instantly hardens and becomes expressionless when addressed by a person of white race. The negro at once masks himself, and instead of the open-minded chatterer of a few moments ago becomes the cautious, shifty juggler with phrases whose fondness of truth for truth's sake receives only homœopathic measures of occasional indulgence.

Other writers have drawn attention to what they describe as the grown-up African's stolidity, his unintelligence, compared with the brightness and promise of his earlier years; and although I agree that there is a reason for this which connects itself with the sexual preoccupations incidental to the period of puberty and thereafter, I am nevertheless of opinion that the mature males are by no means so mentally vacant as their demeanour would often give one occasion for supposing them. The African mind works slowly, and while it plods along, vainly endeavouring to keep pace with your questions and as vainly asking itself the reason for them, between caution on the one hand and bewilderment on the other, the undeveloped intellect falls behind in the race, and the face assumes the appearance of unintelligence which really arises from the duller, slower mind having been run off its shorter legs. The impatient European, therefore, whose want of perception has not permitted him to grasp the situation, immediately forms the erroneous impression that the man is dull-witted, stolid, *borné*. He is not so in reality, or, at any rate, to the extent many persons imagine. All he requires is a little patience to win his confidence, and conquer the shyness so characteristic of his race.

There is no doubt, of course, that to the young boys there comes a more or less prolonged period of check to their mental expansion; a sort of intellectual hibernation during which, as they approach to and attain the period of full sexual development, their minds fall into a state of lethargy, whilst other faculties contribute thereto by the

physical exhaustion which succeeds to excessive lubricity. I used to suppose the apparently clouded perception the older men at times so exasperatingly displayed might be attributed to the same cause, but I do not think so now. It is nothing but a natural, characteristic feeling of shyness which requires some little tact and sympathy to overcome. I have indeed often proved this to be the case, and am convinced that much greater progress would be made towards a more thorough comprehension of the intricacies of the African character if the question were approached with a fuller recognition of what constitute the chief difficulties which stand in our way.

It goes almost without saying that the Valley of the Zambezi, in so far as it comes under Portuguese influence, has entered upon a prolonged, indeed there is every reason to hope and believe, a permanent state of peace. It is many years since the last armed outbreak took place, and as time goes on, and the natives come more clearly to comprehend the advantages they derive from European protection and teachings, any smouldering feelings of discontent or impatience of restraint will finally die away and disappear. I do not think in the breast of the average Zambezian much lust for war and bloodshed nowadays makes itself felt. They are not, as they exist at present, in any sense a truculent people. Centuries of subservience to Portuguese rule have taught them that collisions with the white man have but one invariable result, and they are not eager to incur it. Apart from that, the tribes we are considering possess no sort of cohesion.

The last idea that would occur to them is that of combined action—a circumstance which has contributed in no small degree to the imposition and maintenance of European influence throughout these parts of Africa. Of course, two or three centuries ago it was otherwise, in so far that war was at that time the negro's second nature, and although not always serious, rebellion, with its consequent bloodshed and reprisals, was an event by no means rare; but a tribe is far from being an entity; its component members exist in a constant condition of change, and, as outside influences leave their imprint upon the nature as upon the appearance of the tribes, so, I think, it is not too much to hope they may, in the future, be gradually moulded by beneficent precept and example to abandon such old-time habits and customs as have hitherto retarded their advance towards enlightenment and progress.

To compass the foregoing desirable condition of things, there are growing up many children, as there are doubtless already many adults, of mixed blood, the result of fusions between the tribes who so constantly fought among each other, between Europeans and natives, and lastly, as I have stated elsewhere, between Indians and natives. I think on the whole, therefore—and assuredly the time has come when we have justification for forming an honest opinion—the intermingling of these different peoples is largely responsible for the settled and peaceful conditions we find to day. Not so much in the case of the European share in it, perhaps, but assuredly so in that of the mingling of the

various indigenous races, whose component members, whilst they were wholly separate organisations, understood each other far too little for the certainty of the continual maintenance of peace ; thus it fell that in the old days of inter-tribal warfare, probably the greater number of the outbreaks which took place arose from a want of knowledge engendering contempt, followed by the insult or offence which led to strife. Nowadays all these conflicting units have to a great extent been united into one homogeneous whole, and the result is that although tribal designations survive, a Nyungwe from Tete will fraternise or even ally himself with the family of a Sena man from Shupanga, or either with a Mahindo from the districts near to the coast.

It will, therefore, have been seen from the foregoing that we have no nomadic tribes whatsoever ; none of those predatory wanderers of warlike disposition whose destinies in North and East Africa present so difficult a problem to the administrations of those less favoured regions.

The relations subsisting between the European and the negro are, therefore, of an eminently satisfactory character, and the most unmistakable proofs of this are the aptitude the latter displays in the field of labour, and his willingness to work in the service of the white. I do not think the Bantu of this part of the great continent will for many generations prove suitable for other purposes than these, nor, as I have frequently asserted, is it necessary that he should. He has such an important part to play in the development of the country that, truth to tell, he could not be spared to fill

any other position even did his intelligence show any immediate signs of quickening. We have, therefore, an immense amount of material to assist us in the essential task of opening up the country, and fortunately both for Zambezia and for the negro, nobody has as yet attempted all untimely to ruin his utility by over-instructing him in branches of learning which he does not require, which impair his usefulness as an essential instrument, and for which his brain is not yet ready. I am aware that these remarks are destined to provoke hostile comment from many who will read them ; but I feel, and feel most deeply, that those who will so regard them are persons by whom the needs of Africa are but poorly if at all understood. By "instruction" I mean, naturally, missionary instruction, and although there are few who have passed so many years as I have in East and Central Africa who have profounder appreciation for the character of the missionary, but few there are, perhaps, who lament more than I the often unfortunate misdirection of missionary effort. There is, we all know, no more important or more self-sacrificing task than the teaching of those who are uninstructed, but in selecting the appropriate form of mental nourishment for the African's pressing needs, you naturally have regard first of all to that most suited to his powers of assimilation. I do not think either the African or the European is in any way dissatisfied with the former's actual intellectual condition, whereas both, in greater or lesser degree, would be prepared to welcome improved conditions of life ; healthier surroundings ; better means of

transport ; greater production and output, leading to increased European colonisation ; and last, but perhaps not least, the employment of this immensity of Africa for the relief of congested Europe, and the immediate fitting of these splendid regions not so much for us who are few, as for the countless many who will come hereafter. The European cannot produce these results. The Indian will not. There is only one race left to do it, and that is the race intended by nature for the task. Let the African then set his house in order ; let him sweep it and garnish it for those races who will show him, when his task is finished, the advantages of the civilisation which they bring for his adoption ; but do not rob yourself by your own act of the sole means of achieving this great end by educating the negro in branches of learning which can only militate against the accomplishment of the work he has to do. Teach him the dignity and the necessity of labour if you will. Teach him improved methods of husbandry. Teach him trades. Make your education the means and not the end, and administer it only in so far as may be necessary to expound a principle or make plain a fact. Then the African's usefulness and understanding will grow together, and neither will be sacrificed as is the case in so many parts of Africa to-day.

Now let me stop this homily on what to any person acquainted with the facts must be a fairly self-evident proposition, and endeavour to give some account of the native communities as they exist at present in the region of Zambezia.

There are in the whole of this large territory no

important chieftains, or large native settlements. Thus, in dealing with the Wa-Sena, it must not be supposed that these people are the members of a tribal organisation owing allegiance through so many satraps or headmen to an over-ruling paramount chief. It was so at one time, no doubt, but this system has now passed away, and although the headman, or responsible householder, or whatever we may please to call him, is still vested with slight authority in the village, this is wholly derived from the local European district official, who has the power, should there be grounds for his doing so, to depose the village headman at will. In the prazoes a similar system prevails, the proprietor of the area leased possessing much the same authority over the natives resident thereon as the district official in crown or chartered territory; by this system, therefore, the paramount chiefs of Zambezia are the responsible officials detailed for its administration directly or indirectly by the crown. In this way the dispensing of justice, which is the most important attribute of the representative of authority, is, by the present arrangement, vested in the individual upon whom the present native generation has come to look as its paramount head, just as much as the earlier tribesman regarded his chief as the *fons et origo* of law and order. The law administered is, naturally, Portuguese law, but, so far as has been found practicable, questions are settled in accordance with long-existing usage, where this does not conflict with the well-recognised general principles of right and wrong. Thus the negro at once

comprehends the why and wherefore of the decision given, and is not compelled to accept blindly a dictum he cannot understand.

From the glimpses we have obtained of the condition of the people as described in the earlier chapters of this book, it will have been clear that a century or two ago the tribal organisation of the natives, even though the influence of the European was already beginning to make itself seriously felt, was still very strong, as the disastrous wars with the Bongas at the beginning of the nineteenth century sufficiently prove. Throughout the country large numbers of people could be gathered together at short notice to fight for or defend the interests of the chieftain by whom they were swayed. This potentate throughout his dominions—in some cases very extensive—possessed supreme power, some of which, but not much, was delegated to his headmen, who were responsible for the allegiance and well-being of the various villages. The government of the paramount chief was supported by heavy penalties for all sorts of small offences, and in the remoter portions of his kingdom, where he seldom came, his name was one to inspire awe. He united in his own person all the attributes of the most unredeemed autocracy. Not only was he the ruler, but also the chief justice, and all grave disputes were referred to him, his decision being regarded as absolutely final.

The insecurity consequent upon such conditions as these, both to European interests and to the peace of the country, is at once apparent. It became necessary gradually but surely to re-

distribute the balance of power—to do away with the positions of the chieftains with their many abuses, perils, and inconveniences, and to resolve the people into the more easily handled fraternities which we now find in all parts of the country, namely, small village communities. Very slowly this was done, and from the moment the tribal head was removed, responsibility for the preservation of law and order naturally fell upon the European who had produced these changes. Then began the substitution of something resembling a true *jus gentium*; the commencement, however rude and inefficient, of the creditable conditions which everywhere excite our admiration to-day. Gone are the turbulent spirits who fomented, in years gone by, the bloody disturbances which cost early European enterprise so dear; another generation has arisen now, a generation for whom the tragic stories of the past have but little interest, except perhaps to point to a future which shall be for them and their descendants a future of peace.

I have, however, met, in England and elsewhere, a certain class of person who has listened to my stories of how much has been done by European nations in Africa to point the savage from the darkness of savagery to the light of the wisdom of the just, and on not a few occasions I have been met with strong and stern disapproval. I have been reminded that all the bloodshed and rapine of early times was a just retribution for an unwarrantable intrusion by Europeans into a country in whose destinies and welfare they were not concerned. It is a singular view to take, and one



ZAMBEZIAN GOLDSMITHS—ILLUSTRATING HUTS BUILT ON PILES.

which would not be easy to answer were we not able at once to point to the many blessings which European occupation and protection have brought to almost all parts of the great continent. Africa is not, as these persons say, intended to be occupied solely by the African, and in conditions which permit the aborigines to war upon, destroy, and devour each other as was their early wont. Neither, assuredly, have the European nations assumed the guidance and governance of the black races from purely philanthropical motives. Europe is in need of more and still more fields for the settlement of redundant population—that is an ever-present necessity; and I have never elicited a satisfactory reply from objectors to European expansion in Africa when I have asked them what the position of Great Britain would be to-day if the British populations of her vast over-sea possessions were all now confined within the restricted area of the small group of islands which forms the cradle of the Empire.

Taking the district I am describing as a whole, there are no very large villages or settlements. One rarely sees more than fifteen or twenty huts at a time—sometimes, indeed, not more than nine or ten; but it often happens, in the more thickly populated portions of the country, that very many of these groups of huts occur dotted over large areas, and become, no doubt, in course of time bound together by numerous matrimonial alliances. In most cases the small habitations are arranged in a circle, in the centre of which grows a large shady tree, whilst, in lion-infested regions, they are surrounded by a high, roughly built palisading,

strengthened by thorn bushes. Near the coast, and in the marshy areas flooded in the rainy season, the huts are erected on platforms supported by upright piles from eight to fifteen feet high. They vary in form, but the circular type is that which finds most favour, those erected on piles being almost invariably oblong.

The construction of the dwelling is an undertaking requiring much care and deliberation if it be intended as a permanent place of abode. First of all, the roof is carefully made. This consists of a large frame of light straight poles all radiating from a common centre or apex. They are fashioned into the shape of a cone, and kept in position by circles of split bamboos, the circles growing in diameter as the base is approached, and the poles being secured to them by the fibrous fronds of the small phoenix palm. The skeleton of the roof being now completed, it is set aside, and the measurements for the walls are taken from it. The body of the edifice is now proceeded with. Strong stakes of the Mtéweléwe* tree, if it can be obtained, five or six feet long, are pointed and driven about eighteen inches into the ground, so as to form a circle having a diameter of ten to twelve feet. Around this circle of stakes more split bamboos are secured, both inside and out, thus maintaining the shell of the house in position. At this stage the hut looks like a vast, empty, lidless basket. Now mud is kneaded carefully by the women, and plastered all over the inside, and in some cases the outside also, and a flooring of mud is laid down

* *Brachystegia longifolia*.



BUILDING THE ROOF OF A HUT.



AN A-NYANJA HUT.

within, as also externally, forming a verandah about two feet wide, which is just cleared by the extremities of the eaves. At this stage, with the help of a few kindly neighbours, the roof is hoisted up and placed into position, more poles with forked extremities being disposed around the outside of the narrow mud verandah to afford additional support to the roof by receiving the rim of the cone. The thatching is now carefully laid on, and the small dwelling is ready for occupation. These huts, after one or two heavy falls of rain, during which, it must be confessed, they leak like a basket, become extraordinarily water-tight. After having been occupied some time, the smoke from the fire (there being no chimney) communicates to the roof timbers and inner thatching an appearance of having been blacklead.

As a rule the man and one of his wives occupy such a hut as I have described, his other wives, if he have any, being each lodged in a similar place of abode. Children whilst very young share the hut which is assigned to their respective mothers, but when they reach an age of three or four years, by which time they are almost, if not quite, as advanced as a European child of seven or eight, they are sent out to reside in a large hut inhabited in common by the boys, and called the "Gwero." Small girls have also a dwelling of their own, but they often occupy the same house as the boys.

The hut of the African native does not need very much furniture to equip it for immediate use. His principal effects are as follows: A Fumba, or sleeping bag, made of very finely woven matting.

Into this he creeps at night, and closes it by rolling on top of the aperture by which he entered. He thus escapes the torture of the mosquitoes and other night pests, but how he escapes suffocation it is difficult to surmise. The Duli, or wooden mortar for bruising maize and millet, together with the pestle. This is done before the winnowing process, which precedes the grinding into flour. The Duli is about three feet in height, and the pestle of hard wood about five feet long. Two women usually pound into one mortar at the same time, delivering alternate blows and keeping wonderfully accurate time. Each brings the pestle down upon the contents of the Duli with great force, emitting a slight grunt as she does so. Like many other things, pounding grain is not so easy as it looks, for I have tried it with anything but successful results, to a running accompaniment of shrieks of good-humoured laughter at my clumsy efforts. In addition to the foregoing, a number of baskets of different sizes form part of the domestic equipment, some of moderate depth for holding grain, others of shallower make intended for winnowing it. Then come the large and small earthenware utensils for cooking, and for the carriage and storage of water, millet beer, palm wine, and other liquids. The women mould these vessels from clay with great skill in a variety of shapes and of many sizes. After having received their form at the hands of the potter, they are placed in the sun's rays for a few days, and are then burned in a wood fire. Some of these utensils are tastefully decorated, and after they have been some little

time in use, assume a polish and colour which give them the appearance of having been made of some dark-coloured coppery metal. Spoons, platters, and drinking cups are carved out of a variety of woods, but do not display much in the way either of originality of design or elegance of form.

I am afraid the foregoing list may be taken as almost exhausting the tale of the African's household effects, if one except a few curved-handled drinking gourds, one or two palm-leaf mats for the floor, and one or two wooden pillows; but there remain to be mentioned his field implements, which consist of a hoe and an axe, and his weapons, comprising a spear, a bow, and one or two rudely fashioned arrows. Assegaïs, in the sense of throwing spears, are not used, neither are knob-kerries, nor any other weapon, if I except an occasional cap-gun of archaic pattern, its barrel exhausted to a dangerous degree, not so much by the explosions of trade powder in its depths, as by its unnatural and improper employment in the distillation of spirituous and illicit beverages.

On the rivers the canoes are of the familiar dug-out type common to all South Central African waterways, but occasionally on some of the remoter streams one may still see the primitive bark boat, or "*Almadéa*," as the Portuguese call it. It is made by peeling the bark of a large tree, of whose name I am ignorant, from the trunk in one continuous piece about ten feet long. The ends are then bent upward and inward, and are secured by pegs of wood caulked with moist clay. The remainder is then formed into the shape of the tree-

trunk from which it was taken by means of transverse pegs driven into each side of what finally becomes the gunwale. It is then dried in the sun. Sometimes after being taken into employment these crank shells warp and take on so extraordinary an appearance that, on the occasion of my having recently to cross a fairly wide Central African river in one of these contrivances, a young Swahili follower of mine got so frightened when he saw his sole means of transport that he ran away, and I had much difficulty in getting him to trust himself to it.

Surrounding the circle of native dwellings, are cultivated the various food-stuffs which form the staple diet. Usually on each side of the path, fringed with castor-oil bushes and "Feijão" beans, you will see in its season tall millet canes, each crowned with a dingy seed-vessel, an ineffective imitation of the beautiful, snowy-plumed spear-grass, but full of nourishment, which accounts for its dirty grey appearance. In among the roots, gourds and pumpkins sprawl over the usually clean-hoed ground, and, cut out of the expanse of millet garden as it were, are small clearings in which flourish tobacco, sweet potatoes, ground-nuts, tomatoes, chillies, hemp, and manioc. Bananas spread their cool green fronds in the outskirts, and in some moist neighbouring hollow the more transparent verdure of growing maize hints at a welcome occasional change in the negro's monotonous diet.

The native orders his annual planting somewhat as follows. The ground for the new gardens

having been selected, and so marked that intrusion on its limits is unlikely, the trees are cut down and left during a winter season to dry where they have fallen. Towards September the area is revisited, and the timber encumbering it in all directions, together with the grass and undergrowth, set on fire and consumed, the fertilising ashes being allowed to remain and mingle with the soil at the time of the first hoeing. With the early showers of the spring, the millet and maize are planted; two or three seeds being sown close together, so that, on springing up, one may be a support to the other. As the season advances and the rains become regular and copious, pumpkins, gourds, and cucumbers are put in, together with two or three kinds of beans and peas, rice, sweet potatoes, and manioc. The millet is not ready for reaping until the following winter—about May; but the pumpkins and beans come to maturity much more rapidly, as does also the maize, which in some few favoured spots gives two (if not three) harvests a year. Of fruits there are but few, if one except the inevitable banana, of which there are said to be over thirty varieties, from the small, sweet “Lady’s Finger,” to the almost inedible plantain. Only near the older Portuguese settlements are oranges and lemons found, so that the remaining fruits half-heartedly cultivated include only pine-apples and paw-paws (*Carica papaya*). Sugar cane may be found here and there in small quantities, but it is only grown to chew, and not for the manufacture of the juice into sugar. In times of famine, which are now, fortunately, few and far

between, the African has many indigenous forms of nourishment to fall back upon, including the roots of a score of different growths, from the seeds of the *Kigelia* or Sausage-tree, which he roasts, to the roots of the blue water-lily, which he devours as he finds them. He also obtains, in their season, a number of fruits of a more or less palatable description. I have tried most of them, and discovered that where not absolutely injurious they are vague and unconvincing in flavour. I should not, perhaps, omit to mention a wild coffee bush, which I have been brought to believe is indigenous. It is a fruitful plant, but the coffee made from its small, dark beans is an acquired taste which I have not yet been able to develop. Coconuts, of course, cease to appear a short distance from the coast, and, unhappily, no attempt has yet been made to cultivate on anything like a large scale that lucrative growth the Oil Palm of the west coast.

Domestic animals include the goat, fat-tailed sheep, pig, cat, and dog, and to these may be added the common fowl, pigeon, and duck. It would be wrong to include the ox among what are, properly speaking, the domestic animals kept by the natives. There are oxen, as I have stated, and considerable numbers of them, but their ownership is restricted almost entirely to Europeans. The goat is a most useful animal at all times. Of all sizes and colours, he is the life and soul of the village. The milk supplied by the females has often enabled unpalatable dishes and barren puddings to take on a totally different aspect, whilst a fore-quarter of a young kid is by no means to be despised. The

meek-looking, straight-haired, fat-tailed sheep is a delusion and a snare. His flesh is no better, if so good, as that of the average goat, and he has no other recommendation of any kind. Of native pigs I admit frankly I have no experience, as I have always carefully avoided them.

Having now exhausted the edible domestic quadrupeds, we turn to the dog, which we can dismiss with a few words. He is the ordinary foxy-headed, reddish African pariah. Fox-colour perhaps gives a better idea of his prevailing hue, but it is not unusual to find more or less white marking on head or body where a cross may have occurred with some European variety. I do not recollect having seen black markings on these animals, as described by other writers. This type of dog is common all over Africa, and may be seen in any native village. Probably its most singular feature, and one which is not without its advantages, is this animal's total inability to bark.

The cat is not in any way comparable to the members of the same family found in Europe, neither is it in any way so desirable a domestic pet. There is a thin-faced, earnest expression about the native pussy which augurs badly for the peace of mind of pigeons and the security of small chickens. In colour of a uniform grey, with markings which recall the wild variety—with which I regard it as closely connected—it never attains to the placid, drowsy condition of fat, plethoric contentment so often seen in the face of the pampered home-bred animal, neither, if one come to regard its furtive, suspicious personality, is it a type of feline upon

which one would feel inclined to lavish either affection or indulgence.

The fowls and pigeons present no special points of interest, save in the case of the former, and their sole claim to distinction rests on the fact that as an article of daily diet they are wholly indispensable. The amount of mortality which goes on among the members of this persistently hatchet-overshadowed race is so appalling that in moderately populous European centres the daily death-rate would hardly be believed. The average cost of the fowl as purchased from the native on the Zambezi to-day is about at the rate of four or five for a shilling or its equivalent. It furnishes, to all intents and purposes, the staple article of animal food. In a small family of three or four persons the daily slaughter of fowls for this purpose can never be less than five. Say, for example, 150 per month. Blantyre to-day possesses a European population subsisting almost entirely upon fowls which I estimate at about 180 souls. It is, therefore, a matter of a moment's calculation to ascertain that the annual number of chickens consumed by this insatiable settlement must aggregate somewhere about 109,000. I wonder if the Blantyre people realise this, or have at heart the risk they run of developing in course of time some weird, bird-like peculiarity.

The pigeons are in no way distinct from the well-known common European varieties. My only remark upon the African domestic or Muscovy duck is, may your good fortune preserve you from ever attempting to eat one.

CHAPTER XII

THE NATIVES (*continued*): ETHNOLOGY

THE habits and mode of life of the natives of Zambezia contain much of interest, and although, generally speaking, their peculiarities of custom are not unlike those of neighbouring tribes in the British Sphere, they nevertheless present many curious distinctive points for which it is at times difficult to account.

I propose in this chapter to describe in their order the various events in the life-time of a native of ordinary type, and to lay bare, so far as my inquiries have enabled me to penetrate into them, the usages and observances which, as I have often remarked, encompass the life of the African just as relentlessly as the daily round of things which have to be done, and from which there is no escape even for the European.

As soon as a young woman is found to be *enceinte*, the village is acquainted of the circumstance by the first female to whom she discloses her condition, whereupon the matrons proceed to her house in a body, each one making that peculiar, shrill, tremulous cry, which is quite indescribable, but must be familiar to all who know Africa.

They dance round her, singing and clapping their hands, a ceremony partaking of the nature of congratulation. They then seat themselves, and begin to give her advice largely based on their own experiences, much discussion and dispute arising. Finally, the senior member of the gathering shaves the future mother's head, which is then carefully oiled, the hair being buried with some slight ceremony. This latter form, however, is not observed, I understand, by the Sena people, nor by those of Tete, but only by the coast tribes, the A-Mahindo and A-Chuabo, who surround the delta and the neighbourhood of Quelimane. The following day there is more dancing, some of which is said to be more or less indelicate, and to which none of the males are admitted, and this completes the observances for the time being. After the third or fourth month of pregnancy, the husband and wife cease to cohabit, and do not resume marital relations until some time after the birth of the offspring, during which period, should he possess but one wife, the husband maintains, or is supposed to maintain, a condition of unbroken chastity, believing that should he fail to do so his child will either die or develop some incurable malady or weakness.

At birth, which takes place in the hut, and not in the open forest as among the Yaos, the young mother is assisted by two of the most dependable and elderly of her female acquaintance. As soon as possible thereafter the child's head is carefully shaved and oiled, the hair, as in the case of the mother at pregnancy, being ceremoniously buried. Among the Barué people it is said that the navel-

string is not severed for a full day and a night after birth, but this practice is certainly not followed by the Wa-Nyungwe or Wa-Sena, but as soon as it is done, the child is thoroughly oiled all over. The father is not allowed to see his offspring for a period varying from three to eight days, during which time it is carefully tended by the mother's ministering attendants. Should, however, the infant be in any way deformed, it is taken away into the forest and killed, either by strangulation or else by being buried alive. In the case of twins, which are regarded with great horror, I believe that in many, if not in all cases, the second child is at once put to death. Prematurely born children are almost invariably thrown into the river, or into water of some kind, and are not buried. I never heard of a case of the birth of triplets.

The small children from three to twelve months old, by which time they can run about with great confidence, and are in that as in other respects much more forward than the infants of European parents at a similar age, roll about among the fowls and ducks in a state of complete and happy nudity. When it becomes necessary to transport them from one place to another, they are carried on the mother's hip, or on the small of her back, bound to her person by a shawl or a piece of calico. Under the shadow of the eaves of the huts they are nursed, and petted, and played with by their mothers and maternal relations until they shriek and crow with delight, for the native mother, in spite of the statements of some African writers, is, in many cases, an extremely affectionate parent,

and I have on many occasions witnessed unmistakable acts of tenderness towards her children on her part by which I have been greatly and agreeably impressed.

Let me here indite a word of advice to those who may one day find themselves in the midst of a strange native village which has not quite made up its mind whether to be civil or unfriendly. Never mind the men; leave the women alone altogether, and make love to the children—to the small boys and girls of four, five, or six years old. For this purpose I invariably carry in my provision cases a goodly supply of sweets—barley-sugar, toffee, and others. You will be seated in the middle of the centre space of the small community at the end of a long, wearying day; you have been trying unsuccessfully to negotiate for the purchase of some millet flour for your carriers, or of some fowls for yourself, and have been met with signs of sulkiness almost amounting to hostility. Presently, under the thatched eaves of a neighbouring hut, your eye will alight upon a small group of children, regarding the unwonted spectacle of a white man with wide-open eyes of supreme wonder. Now is your opportunity. You get out a tin of barley-sugar and smilingly beckon to them, holding a piece the while between your fingers. After a moment's hesitation, each nudging the other forward first, a small, timid form sidles up to you, and puts out both hands together, the slightly hollowed palm uppermost. You give him a piece, and beckon to the others, who grow gradually bolder, and approach with more courageous steps.

The sullenness on the faces of their elders has now given way to one of undissembled curiosity ; they taste of your dainty offering, and gradually good humour returns and an understanding is established. Many a time I have extracted myself from positions of no small difficulty by dint of the timely appearance of a tin of Rowntree's chocolates, or the possession of a small quantity of the best Everton toffee.

The African small boy leads a life which, as a rule, would turn the European man-child of the same age green with envy. His days are one long round of pleasure and delight. His responsibilities are few, and consist for the most part in sitting on a high platform in the maize and millet gardens, chasing away the monkeys as they come down to attack the crops, and shooting at the birds who appear on a similar mission with the tiny bow and arrows with which he is armed. He stalks about with three or four friends of his age, looking for advantageous shots at the pigeons and parrots which he brings in to be eaten as a relish with his maize and millet. He leads the free life of the woods, and his entire costume would scarce provide you with material for a pocket-handkerchief of the smallest (or ladies') size. Notwithstanding this, he possesses one remarkable article of apparel which I must mention *en passant*. This is the Manga mikuzi. Soon after birth, a piece of tough grass string is well oiled, and for a day or two is placed in the native path for all who will to walk over. At the end of that time it is secured round the child's waist, and remains, or is believed to remain,

until approaching manhood, and is responsible for warding off all kinds of sickness and accident. Through this string, a piece of calico about two inches wide is passed in front, carried between the thighs and brought over the string behind. Thus the string and the calico form the child's sole raiment, but the latter is not considered an absolute essential until he reaches the age of five or six years. Imagine him, then, O inky ones of the preparatory school, whose days are clouded with the first four conjugations, and the mysteries surrounding the base of an isosceles triangle. Think of him, a being, save in colour, like unto yourselves, with never a school to dim the brightness of his eye, nor the first hazy idea of this thing they call education to suggest cribs furtively concealed behind your text-book, or copy-books judiciously disposed for the warding off of blows.

The child of Africa plays at many games with his companions; he is also much addicted to shooting with the bow, to setting remarkably efficient traps for birds and small animals, to sailing tiny boats and swimming, whilst the small girls delight in solacing their as yet lonely state by playing with large, hideous, wooden dolls, and with grass and bead work often most skilfully and tastefully executed.

In the villages the small native boy is quite a feature, and if you know enough of his language to break down that awe which he feels for the European, he will keep you entertained by the hour. In this way you are enabled largely to enter into that natural brightness of perception, and quick



AN A-NYANJA VILLAGE: MAT-MAKING.

responsiveness to simple facts, of which his elders are seldom capable, and which he himself will lose ere many years have passed over his head.

Among neither the Wa-Sena nor the Wa-Nyungwe is circumcision practised, whilst the Wa-Chuabo of Quelimane and the A-Mahindo of the Zambezi delta invariably perform it. There are thus among the two latter tribes initiation ceremonies for the young people of both sexes not unlike those practised among the Yaos and other Mohammedan races.

In some cases the rite is performed at an early age—five or six, perhaps—but, more generally, shortly after the age of puberty, namely, fourteen or thereabouts. A number of youths then assemble in a grass house, some distance from the nearest village, which is called a Muali. Here they remain several weeks in charge of a native doctor and one or two elderly men, receiving instruction in manliness, as well as considerable information relative to their duties as husbands. I have been informed that the place in which the operation is performed is a grass shelter which in Nyasaland would be called a M'sassa,* but which is known as a Muali (that for girls being Mapuru). It is about thirty yards long, but only about a quarter of that length is walled on both sides. A small hut close by is provided for the use of the doctor and his assistant, whilst goats and chickens are kept in pens for the use of the boys.

It is said that, when all is ready for the perform-

* This as a rule is situated at a short distance from the Muali, but sometimes forms part of it.

ance of the ceremony, a dance is organised, and the youths designated to undergo it are worked up into a state of frantic excitement, and one by one are conducted, still singing and gyrating, to the place set apart for the purpose. Although securely held, they do not as a rule either struggle or wince. A dressing of a plant of an indiarubber order, which is highly astringent, and a few days' rest suffice to heal the wound completely. The doctor receives a fowl for each boy operated on, but nobody finally leaves the Muali until all are healed. On return to the villages, a great feast is held, after which the newly circumcised youths select a new name, and are supposed to be allowed access to any of the women in the village, but I hear that this custom is now falling into disuse. Thenceforward, to address a young man by the name of his childhood is a most serious offence, and one which may well give rise to acts of violence. It is no doubt most remarkable, but I have never heard of any case of septic poisoning or of any other ill-effects caused by the system of circumcision as practised by the tribal divisions I have mentioned.

In the case of the girls, they are similarly separated in their Mapuru under the charge of some village *sage femme*, and undergo instruction in their duties as wives and mothers. Regarding what follows I have been variously informed, but I have come to the conclusion that whilst in some districts an artificial *dilatatio vaginæ* is performed, in others the same result is arrived at by natural means. I have not, however, satisfied myself that both methods are practised.

It would appear as though the rite of circumcision were falling into desuetude. I have been unable to ascertain whether at any time the Sena people practised it, but I think not, as few if any of them are professing Christians, and it is only where baptism has taken the place of the older observance that the latter has, as a rule, been abandoned. Lest any of my readers should cast doubt upon my assertion that circumcision is older than baptism, I would refer them to the mummy of Amen-en-heb, who lived from 1614 to 1555 B.C., and which was found to have undergone this ceremony. According to ancient custom, we are informed by that excellent observer Mr. Kidd, that a man belonging to certain South African tribes, which he has described with such striking success, could not inherit property unless he had submitted to the rite, nor would anybody accept his proposals of marriage on behalf of any of the females of the family.

Practically throughout the Zambezi Valley, antenuptial chastity among the girls is as unnecessary as it is undesirable, and, therefore, a *virgo intacta* of over eight or nine years would be considered a rarity.*

Having accompanied the young Zambezan so far on his journey through life, we now look on to witness the circumstances in which he proceeds to provide himself with a wife, for although, of course, polygamy is common, his first marriage is that which the native looks back upon with the nearest approach of which he is capable to the feelings of

* Apud aliquos barbaros mos est maculosa factitare ob desideria naturalia. Causa exempli talis est prolongas labias minores, quae aliquando uncias longas aut tres aut quatuor, habent.

tenderness known to other races and other colours. It is perfectly safe to say that the negro of this part of Africa is wholly unconscious of those feelings of affectionate regard for his spouse which would be natural to the European of any country. It is true that the flight, capture, or death of a wife affects him considerably, but the sensation he experiences is not grief so much as annoyance and resentment at the prospect of having to go again through an immensity of trouble, and incur no small expense before he can supply the place of his absent helpmate.

The marriage customs vary somewhat among the various tribes, and indeed in each there are several ways in which the happy event can be successfully compassed. It may, for example, happen that one man desiring to strengthen the bonds of friendship which may unite his family with that of a neighbour, may propose an alliance on behalf of one of his small sons, a boy of six or seven years old perhaps, with a baby daughter of his friend. As soon as the value and amount of the initial presents have been decided upon, a formal betrothal takes place, and the two children are taught to regard each as the other's future husband or wife. The marriage does not, of course, take place for years, and in the meantime the youth, doubtless assisted thereto by his family, finds a sufficiency of cloth and beads to clothe his small *fiancée*, who, in turn, frequently acknowledges her acquiescence in the arrangement by cooking his food for him. I never heard of any case of either of the parties attempting to repudiate the contract when the time came to fulfil it, but if

this were done, my authorities were agreed that justice would be met by the return to the jilted one of the equivalent of his presents.

More frequently, however, the choice is made by a young man of eighteen or twenty, in which case his wishes are made known through the instrumentality of a male relative or intimate friend to the father of the damsel on whom he has cast his eyes. If she be marriageable, the event may take place at once, but if not, and the proposals be accepted, the prospective bridegroom makes certain agreed presents, and, in addition, performs certain stipulated services for his future father-in-law, such as assisting in the hoeing of the gardens and the harvesting of the grain, until, on it being delicately conveyed to him that the lady is at length capable of discharging the duties of wife and motherhood, the event takes place with some such observances as the following.

Whilst a bachelor the bridegroom resides at the Gwero, or young men's house, in which the youths of the village—sometimes of both sexes—reside; but as the time draws nigh for his marriage, he proceeds to build a house of his own. This done, and its inspection by the future bride and her family having proved satisfactory, a day is set apart for the nuptials. On its arrival, the bride is conducted by two of the matrons of her own village to that of her expectant groom, a friendly, festive reception being provided for her on the outskirts by the women of the village of which she is about to become a member. The bride's family, who have arrived before her, now advance towards her,

and throw over her some money and beads, which her attendants pick up and appropriate. The bridegroom, who has doubtless long been on the watch for the approach of the bridal procession, now endeavours to simulate a becoming modesty, and dissembles his eagerness by pretending to hide. He is soon discovered, however, by the men of the village, and, amid shrieks of laughter, is brought into his lady's presence. They are now made to seat themselves in the midst of the spectators, and a dance is organised in which all present join, being rewarded for doing so by the bridegroom. The heads of the contracting parties are now shaved. Immediately thereafter, the man retires to his house, and the bride resigns herself to the ministrations of the ladies of the village, who escort her to her new home, amidst lively manifestations of rejoicing. As she reaches it, she is met by the husband, who usually publicly presents her with various household implements and utensils. They now enter the house together, and the door is closed.

Several days afterwards visits are exchanged between the newly married and the family of the bride, when mutual expressions of satisfaction complete the contract, which, incidentally, releases the newly married husband from the impoverished condition which has been for so long imposed upon him by the necessity for making time-honoured presents during his more or less extended period of betrothal. The custom whereby a newly married man is expected to take up his abode in close proximity to the family of his wife is by no means invariable, as it appears to be in other parts of Africa.

As I have stated, polygamy is quite customary, only the poorest limiting himself to one wife. I have been informed by missionaries and others that the chief difficulty they experience in their efforts to root out this custom consists in the fact that the more wives a man has the greater consideration he receives in a country in which wealth and social distinction are reckoned by the number of consorts the individual can afford himself. Still, even this claim has its limits, and though three or four wives are not regarded as an extravagant number, probably very few of even the most revered of the native *colossi* ever exceed nine or ten. The first wife married is the one to whom all subsequent additions to the marital establishment owe obedience. I have ascertained that as a rule the female members of the establishment get on very well together, although not a few cases are known in which the harmony has been sacrificed by most saddening acts of feminine rivalry.

Broadly speaking, the woman may claim from her husband as a right food, clothing, and a dwelling to herself, separate, that is, from the other female establishments. He is bound to keep her house in good order, to pay her taxes, and in all other ways to assist and support her and her children in sickness and in health. The woman, on the other hand, incurs on marriage the duty of labouring in the gardens, drawing water twice daily, bringing in firewood, cooking food, and, lastly, bearing as many children as possible. Should she fail in this latter important obligation, she may be repudiated after a certain period and returned to

her family, who are compelled to pay all costs and charges incidental to the marriage, as well as to the period of betrothal. These may, as a rule, be estimated to amount to anything between £5 and £10. Naturally, before final separation arising from allegations of barrenness, the native doctor, or Nganga, is consulted, and only in the event of the acknowledged failure of his ministrations may the wife be finally put away.

Apart, however, from the foregoing, a measure which is in every way equivalent to divorce is provided for any one of the following causes. On the man's side: (1) Adultery. (2) Inability or unwillingness to perform his marital duties. (3) Failure to maintain his wife in the full enjoyment of her rights as outlined in the preceding paragraph. On the woman's side: (1) Adultery. (2) Refusal to cohabit with her husband. (3) Childlessness. (4) Unwillingness to work in the gardens, and, generally, to discharge her remaining duties. If divorce result from the fault of the wife, the children, as in more civilised circles, remain in the charge of the father; if of the husband, they become members of the family of the wife's father, to whom she returns, together with all her effects, which, in the event of her being the culpable party, would be claimed by the wronged husband, who, in addition, may demand indemnity from his father-in-law for the inconvenience occasioned by his daughter's incompetence or impropriety of conduct as the case may be.

Adultery is not, however, always followed by divorce. Cases are not infrequent in which it may



WA-SENA WOMEN BEATING OUT CORN.

have been deliberately encouraged, for, apart from the wronged partner's constitutional right to the satisfaction afforded by complete separation, he or she may overlook the offence on payment by the individual with whom it has been committed of a substantial sum as damages. This is, in any case, a matter which can only be adjusted by superior authority, either the European district official, or the headman or chief of the village, or group of villages, in which the parties reside. If, on the other hand, the person against whom the adultery is alleged should successfully disprove the charge, he or she may claim divorce, as well as the custody of any children of the marriage. But in general this is rarely done, for although the committal of the offence may have been established, with all sorts of aggravating circumstances, the matter is usually amicably settled on payment of damages on a higher or lower scale.

Another somewhat less common practice which may give cause for the separation of husband and wife is the deliberate frustration by the latter of approaching maternity. This may be prompted by jealousy, by suspicion, in a word, of her husband's infidelity ; by her condition having arisen through her own secret misconduct, or, more frequently still, as the result of a desire, arising out of some simple tiff, to deliberately disappoint and annoy him. As a rule this is brought about by drinking the juices of certain astringent trees which have been pointed out to me, as also, occasionally, by violent means. Curiously enough the women experience scarcely any ill-effects, but this is only one more proof of

the astonishing constitutions with which they have been endowed. Nothing, for example, is more usual than for a woman to walk about the day after the birth of her child as if nothing very extraordinary had happened to her. I remember in Nyasaland, some years ago, the case of a female who was on the road from Blantyre to Zomba (a distance of rather over forty miles), when she was confined on the roadside at a place called Chiradzulu, a little less than half the distance. After the birth of her child she rested during the remainder of that day, slept in a shelter her husband arranged for her, and the following morning completed the distance, arriving at Zomba in very good condition indeed.

The ceremonies observed at death vary considerably. In no two districts, so far as I can learn, are they identical; but selecting the more important observances which more or less coincide throughout, the rite is somewhat as follows. The death is announced to the village by loud cries and wailing, which continue incessantly for a day and a night, and serve to attract many relatives and other persons to the house of mourning. In the extensive Sena district, after the first outward manifestations of grief, preparations are at once made for the interment. Two intimate elderly male friends of the deceased, if it be a man, are requested to undertake the duties of laying out the corpse. These are called the Nyarumbés. Assisted by the Kambaiassa, or doctor (so called only for this purpose), they wash the body with hot water, shave its head, and wrap it in white

calico ready for burial. During the discharge of these duties the wailing and mourning are incessant, the mourners sitting on their heels in a circle, and crooning a dirge-like improvised chant in which they express their esteem for the deceased and his many virtues, recounting prominent incidents in his life-time, the voices at the end of each recital uniting in some general expression of grief. A grave is now opened in the neighbourhood, usually close to the path; and when all is ready, the body, secured by bands of cloth to a pole carried on the shoulders of the elderly male members of the community, is brought to the grave and reverently laid to rest. The position of the dead is almost invariably a recumbent one, but whilst in some districts they are laid on the back, in others they repose on the right side. During the interment none of the boys or young men are allowed to be present—indeed in some districts they are not permitted to look upon the corpse at all, during the funeral *cortège* men being sent in advance to warn all persons to leave the path and remain out of sight until the party has passed by. This custom, however, is not general.

As soon as the grave is filled in, the whole of the dead man's moveable property is broken and placed upon it; but I have not seen in Zambezia either the pots containing food and water placed at the graveside by the Yaos, nor yet the slab of neatly smoothed mud and the thatched roof which the latter place over it.

On the return from the burial, one of the Nyarumbés proceeds to kill a fowl, into the blood of

which the relatives of the departed dip their fingers. He and his colleague then proceed to consume the bird with the exception of one leg, which is suspended by means of a piece of string in the doorway of the dead man's house to be touched on arrival by any of the friends or relatives who may not have had time to attend the obsequies. The reason for this singular custom is that, as these latter suppose that the spirit of the deceased must be wrath with them for not assisting at his funeral, they make peace by touching the fowl's leg, symbolising the "catching of the leg" of an offended person whereby in many parts of Africa apology is tendered and a desire for peace expressed.

Mourning is general for eight days, and dancing to the music of drums continues nightly. Much pombé or native beer is drunk, and the occasion is often made the pretext for excesses of a discreditable character. Black or dark blue cloth is worn as mourning, usually wrapped round the head. At the end of the eighth day the mourning is abandoned, and the near relations shave their heads. A ceremonial washing in the river now takes place, and the proceedings terminate; but for some time thereafter relatives who were in different parts of the country at the time of the death are continually arriving to touch the fowl's now dried-up leg, and manifest their grief and condolence. No more heartless act can be attributed to a Zambebian than neglect to visit and mourn with his bereaved relations.

Should death occur as the result of unknown and presumably unnatural causes, the Kambaiassa



A YAO CHIEFTAIN'S GRAVE.

or doctor is consulted with a view to the matter being cleared up. In not a few cases death is ascribed to witchcraft, and it follows, therefore, that every possible step be now taken to discover the person guilty of so detestable a crime. As a rule suspicion falls, as it was wont to fall years ago in England, upon some unfortunate, well stricken in years, who, by reason of eccentricity or peculiarity of mind or body, suggests a guilty connection with the events which terminated in the death. An accusation is, therefore, made and indignantly repudiated. There is now only one course—the Poison Ordeal, or the drinking of the Mwavi. Even to this day the average native has a firm innate faith in the infallibility of the Mwavi, and the confidence with which they invoke it to clear them of suspicion of wrong-doing is still very deep-rooted and wide-spread. On a given day, therefore, the Kambaiassa, accompanied by his assistant—the Sapenda—mixes the dreary potion in a small calabash gourd. It consists of an infusion of the bark of a tree common throughout South Central Africa, and known as the *Erythrophlœum*. To this the blood of a fowl is added in some districts, and it is heated by means of red-hot stones. The Sapenda now hands this dreadful compound to the suspected person, who drinks it eagerly, and, according to their superstition, his innocence or guilt must immediately be made manifest, for in the first case the powerful irritant poison is vomited and no harm ensues, whilst in the second death is as certain as it is terrible. Of course the whole secret lies in the strength of the dose administered, which if it

be exceedingly strong is at once rejected by the stomach, but if less so cannot be vomited and quickly proves fatal, the agony being appalling. It is clear, therefore, that if the Kambaiassa and his assistant be desirous of effecting the removal of any obnoxious member of the community, their course is a simple one.

Other methods of proving innocence consist of plunging the hands into boiling water, as described in my book "Portuguese East Africa," and by the testimony of the Makaga, which consists of four scales from the back of the crocodile and five from that of the scaly ant-eater (*Manis*). These are shuffled and mixed together, and as they fall to the ground, so they exonerate or condemn.

The wife (or wives) of a deceased person are cared for by the eldest brother, or, failing him, the eldest maternal uncle of the defunct, and doubtless in days when slavery existed in these regions were duly disposed of to the best advantage. In some parts of the country, the chief heir of any small personal property possessed by a deceased person at the time of death is the eldest sister's eldest son; but this rule is by no means general, the tendency being, in centres where European influence has made itself felt, towards inheritance by the sons of the defunct if he had any. Even in cases where the eldest surviving brother successfully establishes his claim, it is usual for him to distribute portions of the estate to other members of the family, preference being as a rule given to the dead man's eldest son. The final distribution takes a considerable time, and is often the cause of grave dissatis-

faction, law suits, and at times disturbances which are only finally settled by the local European judicial authority.

No native ever has the remotest idea of how old he is. Time he reckons by lunar months, and years by seed-time and harvest. He is quite unable to say how many years may have elapsed since the occurrence of even some well-remembered incident, and cannot count or reckon up periods, or, as a rule, anything he cannot see.

Taken as a whole, I regard the native of the Zambezi Valley as a fine, attractive personality, possessed of many undoubtedly valuable qualities, and comparing, I am persuaded, most favourably, both physically and mentally, with the indigenous tribes of any part of East Africa, if we except the more or less educated Mussulmans found in the neighbourhood of Zanzibar. On the other hand, they possess but little in the way of religion, and that little is, I should imagine, of but small value either as an incentive to good works or as a deterrent from evil ones.

As I have just stated, the quality which we should call family affection is rarely noticeable, except between parents and quite young children. I do not think that between a man and his wife any of that intense attachment exists which is so plainly visible in other races. I have come the more to realise this from the fact of having possessed servants and *employés* who were members of the tribes we are considering, and who, at a few hours' notice, have left their women without a murmur on either side for prolonged periods of

time. On the other hand, I have seen a great many instances of unmistakable tenderness on the part of the parents during such time as their offspring have remained quite small. I think, therefore, we may take it that domestic affection is scarcely felt by them in such a way as to exercise any influence over their actions. There is, as some explanation of this, no sort of equality between the man and the woman, the latter being in almost as complete subjection as a domestic animal. She has not, in a word, conquered for herself that consideration born of respect which is the germ of the tender feeling that has ennobled and hallowed among other races the relations between the sexes. Still I do not think that the native husband is a very brutal person. That he beats his wife right soundly there can be no manner of doubt, but I do not suppose the women themselves regard this custom as a piece of brutality, or, indeed, anything but the natural sequel to certain troublesome forms of female naughtiness. It is very rarely indeed that a violent quarrel between husband and wife leads to acts of violence. In this particular the man appears to possess a self-control which would be rare in a European of the lower classes. He will sustain a perfect storm of abuse and invective from his wife without resorting to the last argument of all, and I think it would be only just to surmise that when violent punishment is inflicted, it is so as the result of a deliberate resolution to vindicate his authority, or to purge some offence of a serious character.

Towards animals I must own that the native is

outrageously cruel and unfeeling. He will slay a beast or a bird in such a way as to cause it the most prolonged and exquisite suffering, or will often neglect to put it to death after it has been badly wounded and the shattered frame is writhing with anguish. His treatment of domestic animals on the line of march has often aroused my indignation, especially in the case of the most ill-used and indispensable of all—the African fowl. But he does not do this because he is cruel, but from sheer heedlessness; from want of responsiveness to those feelings of sympathy for pain and misfortune which we call compassion. The latter feeling, in so far as the lower creation is concerned, he literally does not possess; but I should be sorry to say that towards his own species he is not compassionate. In many ways he will have no hesitation, even at great personal inconvenience, in helping or assisting those he may meet in trouble by the way. I have seen him cheerfully double his load and share his last morsel of food in the cause of necessity, and there is, I think, much to be hoped for the future of a savage possessed of redeeming traits of character such as these.

In his present mental condition the Zambezan is a man with the intelligence and ideas of a child. Easily moved to laughter and gaiety, or as easily plunged into the depths of dejection, his mercurial disposition is yet one which I think as a rule is as incapable of deliberate treachery as of any leaning towards undue lust for revenge. He is, therefore, not vindictive.

He is, however, incredibly untruthful, and

possesses powers of ingenious lying which I am convinced few races can lay claim to in equal degree. He is further intensely dishonest, and, in all his thievish operations, greatly assisted by his phenomenal capacity for juggling with the truth. I have heard it said that the African native can blush, but, for my own part, I have never seen him do so, nor so much as move a muscle even when unmasked in the perpetration of the most abandoned lie. He simply stands before you silent, with an expression of slightly bored martyrdom which says plainly, "Dear me, what an ass this white man is to make such a fuss about nothing." I am persuaded that, however perfect the African character may ultimately become, after centuries of European tuition and training, the two weaknesses which will take longer to eradicate than any others are those to which this paragraph has been devoted.

I suppose any act committed in defiance and disregard of the laws of property is one of the most serious crimes a native can commit among his own people; but I am perfectly satisfied that theft from a European, be he the delinquent's master or employer or not, is not looked upon either by the offender or those of his colour who may be privy to it as in any sense so serious. No inducement will ever suffice to procure the evidence of one servant or *employé* against another in these circumstances, a fact which greatly increases the difficulty of detecting transgression.

Drunkenness is not regarded as a matter of any gravity, but rather as a mere venial weakness, and,

so long as no danger or inconvenience result to the community, a matter which affects nobody but the person who may have been guilty of it. In fact, neglect to take advantage of an opportunity to indulge in strong drink to excess, or to purloin safely a white man's small possessions, would, I am convinced, be regarded as a much more incomprehensible shortcoming than the act of doing so. What then, I ask, can be done at present to instil a high sense of duty and virtue into such natives as these? Of a surety their claim to be regarded as men and brethren cannot yet be fully admitted. It will come to be so doubtless, but not before the African shall have so changed the man that is within him that those at home, who now all untimely sigh and pant for the education and regeneration of the black races, find in him a more satisfactory field for the seeds of civilisation than, I fear, he yet possesses. His mind in its present condition would afford, I am convinced, but stony ground; in fact, in most of those cases where, in neighbouring colonies, the lessons of truth have shown apparently unmistakable signs of germination, they have on reaching maturity proved of far too weak a growth to deter the negro from the occasional committal of those acts of disappointing moral obliquity which show that what is described as his "higher nature" has not as yet attained to a very elevated level. How should it be otherwise? How can the benumbed intellect, which has been cramped and fettered by countless generations of brain-petrifying subjection, suddenly absorb and assimilate new and perplexing

dogmas, and display itself garbed in all the dignity of full and complete understanding? You may certainly find, I agree, a few cases here and there of exceptional promise, but the proof of the pudding has usually been disappointing sooner or later, and the last state of those cases entirely unanticipated.

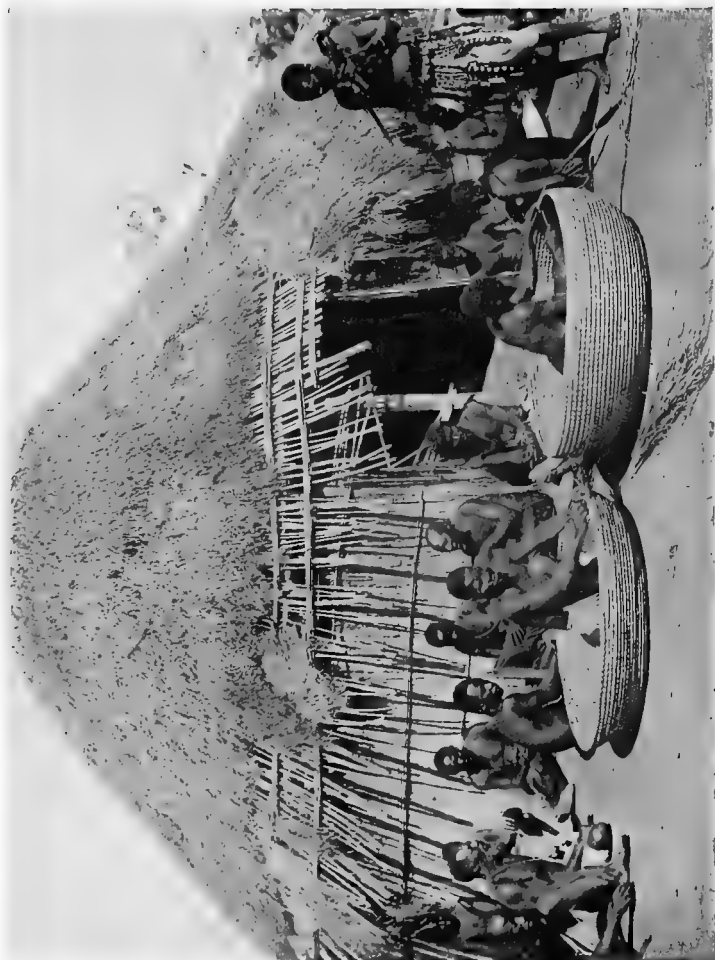
During the summer season the Zambebian hunts continually, and is successful in bringing to bag considerable numbers of game beasts. Some of these, buffaloes, large antelopes, and the like, are often driven into swampy, marshy expanses, and there despatched with long spears made for the purpose, and about the same size as a pig-sticking lance. Then again, at the approach of winter, and as the grass dries, fires are lighted in such a way as to drive the herds past large armed parties advantageously posted, when great numbers of animals are killed with arrows and spears. Another method employed is to dig a line of V-shaped pits, five or six feet deep, which are carefully covered and concealed, and over which herds of game are driven. On falling in, the animal's feet all come together in the narrow bottom so that it is entirely helpless; it is then despatched with spears. Small game is caught in traps, most of which are devised upon the snare, or running noose, system, and can really hold quite a large animal. In some parts of the country bushbuck and impala, as well as the smaller varieties of antelope, are netted, being driven by a number of men and dogs into a net cunningly placed. Into this they madly rush, and are unable to extricate themselves.

Birds are usually caught by means of a contrivance almost exactly like the "springle" so dear to the heart of every properly constructed British boy. It is made of a long stick about the thickness of a whip-stock, bent down and attached to a running noose kept in position by several small upright sticks. In the midst of these, and connected with an ingenious catch, a small quantity of millet or maize is so placed that a guinea-fowl or partridge picking it up would be caught by the neck and quickly strangled. I have even seen rabbits and small buck secured in this way.

Fish in the rivers and streams are caught chiefly by means of basket fish-traps of triangular shape about five feet long, and made of finely split bamboos. The spot selected for setting them is the mouth of some stream flowing into the Zambezi. At the point of confluence a dam of reed-fencing is constructed, the fish-traps being placed in position in the dam at short intervals all the way along it. They are visited night and morning, and are almost always found to contain fish. In addition to the foregoing, net-fishing is very largely practised. The nets, often fifty yards in length, are dragged behind canoes, and large catches are made, the varieties chiefly consisting of bream, barbel, a handsome tiger-fish, and another resembling a perch, but singularly tasteless and bony. Most of the fish taken are split open and dried either in the sun or over wood fires. Line-fishing is also very general; some of the villages on the Zambezi indulging in rod-fishing also, precisely in the same way as that followed by Europeans. A long

bamboo serves as a rod, and a fragment of the pith of the bango-reed is utilised as a float. Fish-hooks of European manufacture are now in general use.

With regard to sickness, the African is a singularly bad patient, and immediately becomes despondent, dying in many cases from sheer want of force of character to enable him to make up his mind to get well again. In their own villages, this want of power to assist by their own efforts the ministrations of the Nganga or Kambaiassa is aided in the frequently fatal termination of even a simple malady by the belief that the sick man is the victim of witchcraft, and that the hope of recovery were, therefore, futile. I fancy they have a much greater faith in the efforts of European doctors than they have in those of their own, for the childlike faith the native has in the power of the white man supports his belief in the efficacy of the treatment he receives.



BASKET-MAKING, A-NYANJA.

CHAPTER XIII

THE NATIVES (*continued*): SUPERSTITIONS— FOLK LORE

THE chief superstitions of the natives of the Zambezi Valley are those with which the witch doctor is closely connected, although there are doubtless many others which are more in the nature of habits hallowed by long custom than superstitions properly speaking. But those which centre on the ministrations of the witch doctor are most extraordinary at times—a quaint *mélange* of fact and fiction, of demonstration on the one hand and trickery on the other. Thus the witch doctor (variously called Nganga or Kambaiassa), who, without doubt, as a rule possesses a considerable knowledge of certain natural remedies, poisons, and kindred means of producing simple results, is an accomplished trickster who bluffs most superbly. A witch doctor who could not make a handsome living in the present ignorant, superstitious condition of the native mind would be a born idiot. Not only is he entrusted with the discovery and trial by ordeal of accused persons, which duties offer at once a wide field for his cupidity and ingenuity, but, at times, he is even

called in and his aid requisitioned to produce rain or other atmospheric phenomena. These last-named duties require days and sometimes weeks of preparation. He is preparing, in fact, until it is perfectly apparent that rain is at hand. If much delay should occur, he explains that his charms have taken longer than usual to work owing to the hostile influence of some malevolent wizard whose identity he already suspects. He then looks darkly round, and gives out that he will shortly proceed to identify the miscreant who has been prolonging the drought. His relations with the more influential members of the community now suddenly cool, so that they are filled with anxiety lest denunciation should overtake them, and load the dreaded seer with handsome gifts. Finally he pitches upon some unfortunate too aged or world-weary to make too vigorous a defence. There is now no hope. The poison ordeal must be administered, and the astute Nganga takes good care that, for his own reputation's sake as a diviner, the accused cannot possibly recover. Of course at times the people grow impatient at the non-appearance of rain in response to the Nganga's "preparations," but even in such a case the resourceful expert may say that the white men are working against him, that his fee has been considered insufficient, or that he is wrestling with the charms of powerful and envious rivals. He need never be at a loss for an explanation. Nobody can contradict him, and, in any case, he is far too formidable a person with whom to enter into direct conflict. There is, as I have said, probably no

more credulous person on earth than the average negro, so that the village witch doctor need never have any difficulty in forcing the most impossible story down his patient, receptive throat.

Then again, in certain cases, this important personage is confidently believed to have it in his power to turn individuals into wild animals; to assemble the beasts of the forests at his will, and compel them to obey him. This supposititious power is one which is very widely believed, and, needless to say, a person supposed to be capable of exercising it is greatly feared and deferred to. Such a person was pointed out to me in the Barué last year, in a village near the singular, isolated mountain which is called M'handá. He it was, I was informed, who foretold the defeat and downfall of the last Makombé in 1902. They told me that he frequently changed himself into a lion, and once had been known to assume the shape of an elephant; also that during the 1902 campaign, being anxious to assist the Portuguese in compassing the Makombé's defeat, he had caused the lions, leopards, and other wild beasts to co-operate with the Portuguese forces by harassing the enemy in the night, as well as during their retreat.

In addition to the power of the Nganga in such matters, there are certain individuals who are stated at times to turn into wild animals either voluntarily or involuntarily. I never met with any of these latter, but I was informed on several occasions of their presence in the districts. I have no doubt that this is a form of lunacy which may well be a dangerous one, since it is not inconceivable that,

during the period in which the individual supposed his shape to be changed, he might, and probably would, commit acts of violence such as might be expected from the beast whose form he thought he had assumed.

In certain parts of the country a firm belief exists in the power of certain medicines to transform individuals into the shapes of animals. It is supposed that if these be mixed with a man's food, he will commence to emit strange cries, such as would be characteristic of the beast into which he feels himself to be gradually turning. After a short time he rushes into the forest, his appearance changing rapidly as he goes. His tail makes its appearance during the night, and the following morning he is wholly unaware of his human origin. Some say this transformation is only temporary, and that, after a period more or less prolonged, he recovers his original nature and appearance.

If left to his own devices, the Zambezan does not set apart any day or season for abstention from work, or, in a word, as a time of holiday. The priest João dos Santos tells us, in Chapter IX. of "Ethiopia Oriental," that in his time this was the case; but whatever may have been the events the days set aside were intended to commemorate, they have been entirely forgotten in more recent times. The only occasion giving rise to anything in the nature of festivity is the appearance of the new moon, but the feeling thereby awakened is in no sense a deeper one than joy at the prospect of being able to drink and dance to a later hour than

during the part of the month when her light is invisible.

The native never troubles his head about the mysteries of the creation, of the commencement of life, or of his own origin. The present and the future are sufficient for him, each distinguished by its own peculiar preoccupations and uncertainties. I suppose the future really troubles him but little—he is too much of a fatalist for that. Still, in spite of his disregard of the mysteries of the past or the contingencies of the future, it is a singular fact that that widely travelled legend of how the chameleon brought death into the world, which is known all over Bantu South Africa, and even up the coast as far as Zanzibar, is current in the districts of Zambezia. It is somewhat to the following effect.

Long ago, death occurred only as the result of violence—the violence of war, or that of the attack of wild beasts, or the punishment of grave offences. Otherwise people did not die of disease, for example, of old age, boredom, or the thousand-and-one unnecessary causes which in these latter days hurry us, all untimely, into the cold and silent tomb. But the position had its drawbacks. It ended in a population so numerous as to give rise to an insufficiency of food. So those great ones who held in their hands the economic Ordering of Things held a conference, away in a lonely place by themselves, and free from the embarrassing attendance of the representatives of the halfpenny press. They decided, after much discussion, that there was only one thing to be done, namely, to

invite the attention of the world of spirits to a condition which was rapidly growing untenable, and to request permission to qualify for membership of the celestial circle after a limited period and by natural means. Summoning the lizard, therefore, they despatched him on this important errand with many injunctions to secrecy. It fell, however, that some member of the conference, unable to support a secret of so weighty a character, deliberately gave it away to an amazed and indignant populace, who promptly commissioned a messenger of their own, praying that, at all hazards of famine and hunger, they might be permitted to live as they had always done, and keep death at a distance. By some lamentable error of judgment, their choice of a bearer for so all-important a request fell, of all creatures in the world, upon the chameleon. With a calm deliberation, and that absence of flurry which characterise this singular creature's every movement, he inconsiderately accepted the commission, and departed on his vital errand his eyes fixed upon futurity and his mind centred upon flies. In such a mental condition, it naturally took him some considerable time to reach his journey's end, but finally he found himself in the land of shades, where he was received with the consideration befitting the importance of his mission. He was informed in response to his leisurely representations that, unluckily for the hopes of the races of men, the lizard had already been entrusted with full powers to introduce death into the world by natural causes, and had already a long start of him. Thus, as nothing could now be done

to arrest him, the secret of death was handed by the lizard to the petitioners for it, and the chameleon must throughout the ages bear the odium attaching to his scandalous and inopportune casualness.

A very curious form of belief is that the spirits of dead persons are enabled to return and watch over their surviving relations in the shapes of animals. It frequently happens, therefore, that whilst one family is unwilling to slay beasts of one species, another group will betray reluctance to kill those of another. This belief is particularly general among the Wa-Tonga of the Barué, who still perform "animal dances" in which they imitate the voices and movements of those forms in which they suppose the spirits of their dead may be temporarily sheltered. But although the reason assigned for the entry of spirits into the bodies of animals is that of protection to the survivors, the beasts whose forms the spirits take are not expected to manifest their presence by any undue desire to visit the abode of those who remain. Were they to do so, I do not think that faith in the identity of their animating spark would outweigh an unmistakable manifestation of panic on the part of those so visited. They will tell you, however, that an animal into which a given spirit has passed, is close by, and will not permit any other of the same species to do them harm.

I have never heard expression given to the belief, attributed to certain South African tribes, in races of people who live beneath the surface of the water ; but I have heard the opinion several times expressed that Europeans originally lived under the

sea, and that the adaptability they now display to a mode of life such as that which they have adopted on dry land is a matter of comparatively recent acquirement.

The superstition of witchcraft already referred to, which induces such practices as recourse to the poison ordeal and other "proofs," takes at times a particularly interesting though intensely horrible form, namely that the person exercising it has the power to turn him or herself into a hyena, or other animal, for the purpose of committing the unimaginable crime of cannibalism. The story will be remembered, in my chapter on the Barué District, of the old woman Dzango, who lusted to devour the unfortunate girl she did to death. In like manner, I believe there is, at times, a ghastly form of mania among certain of the black races which awakens in them an unconquerable yearning for human flesh. Whence it arises, whether from some strange recrudescence of the old-time cannibalistic habit, to which centuries ago practically all the dwellers in this part of Africa were addicted, or not, one cannot of course say. In the native mind it is now almost universally connected with sorcery, the supposition being that the wizard, by means of mysterious spells, compasses the death of his unhappy victim, and that immediately after the burial he changes himself into a carnivorous animal, and disinters the corpse, which he devours. In many parts of the country, where the smallest suspicion exists that death may be due to occult causes, the most elaborate precautions are taken to prevent the violation of the grave, and these, added

to the certainty that some person is undergoing the Mwavi torture, throw the whole community into a state of ferment.

But stripping off the picturesque superstition of sorcery, with all its singular "were-wolf" attributes, cases have been known of natives becoming addicted to a form of cannibalism which has led to their digging up and devouring the corpses of the dead. I remember one particularly conclusive piece of evidence which I received in the course of a visit to Zambezia only last year. It appears that in certain A-Nyanja villages in the Pinda District, an old man was accused of this practice, and, a complaint having been formally made to the headman of his village, he was made to drink Mwavi, which in this instance was a correct enough form of ordeal, for no sooner was it applied, and before the man had time to vomit, he was seized with panic and confessed that the charge was true, at the same time directing the people to the spot in the forest where his dreadful feasts took place. Here human remains were discovered, but when they were brought in to the village, it was found that the accused had vomited the draught, and, therefore, could not be guilty. Here was a perplexing position; so to solve it the whole matter was brought before the European district official, who told me the story.

Of course the native mind invests these cannibalistic sabbaths with much fanciful, fantastic imagery. They suppose, for example, that the corpse-devouring wizards are very numerous; that in addition to putting on the forms of wild beasts,

they can render themselves invisible and fly ; that whilst thus impalpable, they assemble together and summon the dead man, using language unknown to ordinary mortals, and calling him, by the name of his childhood, before puberty, to leave his grave. This the corpse is compelled to do, whereupon they fall upon and devour it. Whilst these dreadful orgies are in progress, it is believed that large bats, night-jars, and especially the great eagle-owl keep watch to see that no person approaches. Hyenas are also employed as sentries, and receive the remains of the wizards' feast. The howl of a hyena is, therefore, an eerie sound to the ears of the average native.

Belief in the future state of the spirit varies considerably, for whilst among the people of one tribe it is supposed that the flame of life remains in the grave with the body it formerly inhabited, those of another will tell you that it stays in a certain locality, usually the summit of a mountain, which is only visited occasionally by the living. Some time ago, whilst I was staying a night in the village of a chieftain whose huts were situated in a lovely position seven or eight miles from the high Kungu Peak of the Barué, he informed me that years ago he had ascended it for the purpose of praying to the spirits of his ancestors, but nobody had been up there since. He was about to marry his first wife at the time, and desired a sign as to whether the venture would turn out well or not. He added that in his father's time, when he was quite a small boy, the Vatuas used to come from the Inhambane region, and lay waste the whole country, where-

upon the natives would retreat to the mountain. In the wars of Gouveia (see Chapter VI.), they were in the habit of doing the same thing, so that in course of time villages in concealed portions of the mountain plateau sprang up, and were used as refuges as occasion arose. The many people who died, whilst concealing themselves from the warring elements below, were buried on a shoulder of Kungu, so that their spirits would naturally remain there. He told me that once in a lifetime, seldom more than once, each person who could claim connection with those whose remains rested in the cemetery were wont to ascend the peak to make offerings, pray, and solicit guidance in relation to some contemplated project. There was only one very old man who knew the way up, and no European had ever found his way to the top.

Among certain of the A-Nyanja people of the Massingire Prazo the practice of disinterring the bones of deceased persons some time after burial is general. These are taken up and scattered in various directions, the skull and larger bones being broken for the purpose. This is not, so far as I am aware, the custom among the Wa-Sena, nor is it done by the natives nearer the coast.

Belief in ghosts does not appear to be very general, although I have discussed the matter with Sena people who had heard of such things. The spirit, when once it has left the body, is imagined to be, and to remain, invisible. They believe firmly in the existence of a Supreme Being called Mlungu, who, they think, made everything; but they do not believe that intercession or prayer to him is

of any avail. Their faith is likewise strong in an evil influence variously called, who, they consider, is always looking for an opportunity to afflict them and interfere with their temporal well-being. The propitiation of the latter is a troublesome and expensive business, as it never occurs to the African mind that Mlungu might be able to exercise any restraining influence; so he takes the whole of the gigantic contract upon his own shoulders, and, as a rule, finds it a sufficiently absorbing study. Before undertaking the simplest enterprise, therefore, he will consult the spirits of his ancestors, with very considerable ceremony, supposing that from their present abode they must possess facilities for obtaining information as to the views of the evil one. It is evidently not an idea that would enter the minds of the survivors of a family which had been noted for its good works, but the native sees nothing derogatory to their memory in it, since the evil spirits are supposed to have a habit of consorting with the shades of the dead, possibly with a view to gleaning hints as to how most easily to exercise their satanic and malevolent influence upon the survivors. Be this as it may, the Creator is wholly neglected, and never enters into their calculations at all.

Another singular custom which obtains in certain parts of the country is to apply to the witch doctor for denunciation of the unknown perpetrator of murder, witchcraft, or other serious offence, by calling back, in the case of the former, the spirit of the deceased. This he affects to do by means of a small gourd, usually not unlike a little, fat doll. It

is dressed up in calico and beads, and at times most extravagantly ornamented. The person utilising it as a medium takes an offering and repairs to the house of the witch doctor, who receives it and pretends to interrogate the oracle somewhat as follows. Calling the spirit by name, he asks, "So-and-so, are you listening?" If there is no answer, he says it is because the offering is not large enough; but if the amount laid before him be satisfactory, a squeak is given, apparently by the gourd, to signify that the spirit of the defunct is now in attendance. Many questions are now asked, such as, "Who is the guilty person?" "Why did he murder you?" "Where is he now?" "Will he deny it?" and so on. The answers are given either by means of ventriloquism, or else mechanically, and consist always of a series of squeaks, which the doctor professes to be able to interpret. Finally some person is named, whereupon he is promptly denounced and made to undergo the ordeal.

Good and bad signs are very numerous, and consist, among others, of the following:

To find a snake lying along the path signifies success on the journey; across it, or coiled in it, failure and disaster.

Bird songs of certain birds on the left hand signify good luck, whilst on the right they presage the contrary.

Certain antelopes crossing the path ahead from right to left are an excellent sign, but if in the contrary direction, the native will abandon his journey and go home.

To meet a number of young girls is a fortunate circumstance, whilst a single female, especially if she be *enceinte*, is a serious matter.

Rapid, nervous contraction of the right eye-lid foretells a pleasing sight during the day.

If a lion be seen and retires noiselessly it is a good omen ; but if it growl, it is a forewarning of death.

A screech-owl on the roof of a hut is a sign of misfortune, as is also the hooting several nights in succession of the common barn-owl.

If a thunderbolt fall in a village, or if it be struck by lightning, it must be immediately abandoned.

A tortoise in the path, or the appearance of a porcupine, is an excellent indication.

Pied kingfishers flying across the bow of a canoe are certain precursors of evil.

There are doubtless many more superstitions of a similar kind, but the foregoing are current all over Zambezia in one part or another.

Among certain of the A-Nyanja people, and I believe also the A-Mahindo, belief in the spirits of trees and waters is prevalent. They also think that the latter are worshipped by hippopotami, and that when at midday many of these animals may be seen congregated in a pool or on a sand-bank, they are praying to the water spirits to show them the way to their favourite food.

Charms and amulets are extensively worn, and implicitly believed in. They usually take the form of small pieces of twig or bark, or the wood

of trees and bushes to which certain virtues are ascribed. The teeth of crocodiles, the teeth and claws of lions and leopards and other animals, are also worn. In the cases of some of these charms, avoidance of rheumatism, skin diseases, and the like is believed to be assured. In those of claws, and the teeth of reptiles and *carnivora*, safety from these creatures is considered to be secured. There are, in addition, procurable for a consideration from the witch doctor, other charms which, when worn or otherwise exercised, are believed to make the owner invisible, or, buried with the incantations proper to the occasion, enable him to secretly cause the death of any obnoxious neighbour. Other forms of medicine render him immune to bullets and arrows, whilst others again enable him to kill invariably by the same means. The charms and amulets I have mentioned are worn round the neck, interspersed, sometimes quite tastefully, with beads. They are also carried on the wrists and ankles, around the waist, and wherever their virtue is counted upon to exert a salutary influence.

Many natural remedies are known, not only to the Nganga, but also to the people, and from some of these I have personally more than once derived benefit. Their knowledge of remedies chiefly consists of simple herbs, grasses, and leaves. Infusions of the bark of certain trees are, however, much resorted to, as also charcoal made into a paste with castor-oil, and applied as an ointment to wounds, obstinate sores, ulcers, and the like. Remedies for curing simple ailments, such as

diarrhoea, colds, headache, stomach derangements, and so on, are well known, and always available. A very efficient form of dry-cupping is also practised with the instrumentality of a small antelope's horn. The use of astringent dressings for healing is well understood, as is also the efficacy of the inhalation of medicated steam for asthma and diseases of the chest.

There is one matter which I have overlooked in relation to native superstitions, and that is the complete absence of belief in any definite future state or condition, or any faith in the resurrection. They have, moreover, not the faintest conception of immortality. As we have seen, the spirit is supposed to be vaguely bound to the grave, or to some area, where it is believed to spend an uncertain period of time. Certainly no negro would believe that the body which he has seen laid in the ground, or, possibly, removed thence and deliberately scattered in the forest, could rise again, and, in its old aspect, or anything like it, put on incorruptibility. At the same time, they cannot in the least understand your question when you ask them if they think the spirits of the departed live on "for ever." Eternity is a phrase which the native mind is incapable of comprehending. His expression for eternity is "all days,"* but it would be impossible to make him grasp such a meaning in its full and illimitable sense. He could not bring his mind to perceive, even faintly, what was meant by a condition in which time had ceased, could not be measured any more by days or months, in fact

* Siku Zonséné.

was not. I suppose he thinks in some vague, formless fashion, if he thinks at all, that the human essence, if it could be seen at the moment of dissolution, is a dim, faintly luminous shape, and that it becomes less and less so as the years go by, until, after an infinity of them, it gradually melts away into nothingness, and forms anew some part of the great scheme of Nature to waft onward mysteriously toward final fruition the first feeble elements of nascent life.

The negro, all Africa over, revels in fables and riddles, and it is very probable that the small child's first recollections of human speech connect themselves with such sayings as—

Q. Who builds a house without a door ?

A. The hen.

Q. Who lives inside ?

A. A chicken.

And from the daily gathering of his mother's friends, as they come along with their babies in the golden light of early afternoon to sit under the eaves of the hut, and chatter about all manner of things, he hears strange stories of what the elephant said to the locusts who ate up all his food ; how the tortoise and the porcupine fell out ; what was the cause of all the game running away when the white man came ; and many more, grave and gay, printable and—the reverse.

The stories and fables of the negro on the Zambezi are not at all unlike those which have done duty in many distant parts of the country, as well to the north as to the south. There is a strange family resemblance between them, and as they have

never been written, save by travellers and missionaries, they must have been handed down orally in the various tribes from a time as remote as the earliest occupation of the great continent by black races. It is clear, therefore, that these old legends and fables must, to an unlettered people, have largely taken the place of books, and, in their simplicity or complexity of construction, they afford us considerable assistance in gauging the intellectual capacity of the people.

I shall now proceed to transcribe a few for the benefit of my readers, or such of them as are unacquainted with African stories.

THE HARE, THE ELEPHANT, AND THE RHINOCEROS

Once upon a time the elephant went out and met the hare. "What news?" said the elephant. "Good," replied the hare. "I have eaten well, my stomach is full, and I feel remarkably strong. Let us have a tug-of-war." "What!" cried the elephant, who could scarcely believe his ears. "Why, if I put my foot down upon you, who would ever believe you had been a hare?" "Never mind," said the hare, "take this rope and tie it round your neck; I will go down this ravine, and you will see that you will not be able to pull me up again." So the elephant tied the rope round his neck, chuckling to himself the while, and the hare, with the other end, disappeared down the ravine. He there found an immense rhinoceros, to whom he said, "Will you wager that if I tie this rope round your neck, and go up to the top of the

ravine, you can pull me back ? ” But the rhinoceros only laughed, and said, “ I could jerk you back and catch you on my horn.” “ Never mind,” rejoined the hare, “ let us try.” So he attached the end of the rope held by the elephant to the neck of the rhinoceros, and retracing his steps until he reached a point about the middle, he cried to them both to pull him. Then commenced a mighty struggle ; the elephant trying to pull the rhinoceros up-hill, and the rhinoceros to draw the elephant down. They pulled until they were weary, without the least result, and at length went in search of each other. When they met both were furious at the trick the hare had played them, and agreed that he must die, so they tied him up and placed him in a tree, whilst they went for firewood to burn him to death. Whilst they were gone, a leopard passing by espied the hare tied up in the tree. “ What are you doing there, hare ? ” he asked. “ The elephant said he would make me eat flesh,” replied the cunning hare, “ and as my teeth were not made for eating anything but grass, I shall starve to death.” “ Oh, but mine were,” said the leopard ; “ I will take your place.” So with his teeth he unfastened the hare’s bonds, and the latter lost no time in getting out of sight. When the elephant came back, he said in a surprised tone, “ What are you doing there, leopard ? ” “ Waiting for the meat you went to get for the hare,” was the rejoinder. “ Ah,” said the elephant, “ you want the meat, do you ? Well, take it,” and throwing upon the leopard the immense pile of wood he had brought back, he crushed him to death.

THE LION AND THE LITTLE GIRLS

Two little girls were going along the path one day, and found the head and horns of a bushbuck, whose body had been eaten by a lion in the night. So they picked the head up and carried it along with them. But before they had gone very far, the lion came to look for it, and found it had disappeared, so he followed upon the scent of the little girls growling fiercely and saying :

“My horns, give me back my horns ;
My horns, give me back my horns.”

So the little girls were dreadfully afraid, and ran as hard as they could to the nearest village, and hid themselves in a goat-house. But the lion came sniffing round, and kept saying in the most awful tones :

“My horns, give me back my horns ;
My horns, give me back my horns.”

But his head was too large to go into the door of the goat-house, which was quite dark inside, and as the little girls clung together in an agony of terror, the earth suddenly gave way, and they fell into the hole of an ant-eater.

“Oh, ant-eater,” they said, “show us the other way out, for the lion wants to kill us.” But the ant-eater laughed. “I am not afraid of the lion,” he said ; “he cannot kill me, my armour is too strong. I will go and tell him to go away.” So, to the lion’s surprise, a voice he thought belonged

to one of the little girls came from the goat-house and said, "Be quiet, lion; we want to go to sleep." This made the lion dreadfully angry, and he made up his mind to eat the little girls as well as the bushbuck's head. "Come out," he said, "Come out and I will eat you." "You cannot eat me," replied the ant-eater, "for your jaws are not strong enough." This put the lion into a still more frightful rage. "Only let me get hold of you and you shall see," he roared. "Very well," said the ant-eater, "put your paw through the door, and feel how hard I am." So the lion put his paw through the doorway and tried hard to claw the ant-eater, but when he felt the hard scales of his armour he turned on his heel and went away.

THE CROCODILE'S CHARM

Some years ago, a man living at Lacerdonia had two sons, and as he was getting old they said to him one day, "You are now an old man; give us a little of everything you possess, and we will go away, and build ourselves houses." So the old man gave them some cloth, and beads, and seed, and millet, and other things, and they set off to a place where they had settled they would in future reside. And as they journeyed along, a lion sprang upon the one who was foremost, and bore him off. So the brother who remained gathered the dead man's scattered possessions from the path, and he was very glad, and said to himself, "Now, with the help of my brother's property added to mine, I can get married, for I have now sufficient to buy me a

wife." So that night he arrived at a village where there was a big dance, and was hospitably received in one of the headman's own huts. The next day he saw his host's daughter, and made proposals for her which were accepted, so he settled there, and soon after was married. But his wife had no children, so he took another after some time had passed, and the first wife was so low-spirited about it that she went and consulted the Kambaiassa, took some medicine he gave her, and in the fulness of time presented her husband with a fine baby-girl. When the baby made its appearance, the second wife was so jealous of her rival's child that she went to her brother, who was a Nganga of the A-Nyanja people, and asked him for a charm to kill the mother. She also told him she would like one to kill the child as well, but he refused, saying that he would only give her a charm to kill the mother, and, when she was dead, they would steal the child and sell it. So he gave her the medicine, which she was assured would call a crocodile when the woman went down to draw water at the river, the reptile would take her, and all would be well. All that was necessary was to place it close to the water-side and to say :

"Ngwena ndza kuno,
Ngwena ndza kuno." (Crocodile, come here.)

That night the jealous one went down to the river to bury her charm, but as she did so the crocodile came and carried *her* off, and she was never seen again.

The foregoing is stated to be a true story.

THE LION AND THE HARE

The lion and the hare lived together in the same part of the forest, and one day the lion said, "Hare, we are both very hungry, and our mothers will not give us enough to eat; let us go and kill them, and then we can have as much as we desire." "Very well," assented the hare, so they set out, each carrying a spear. The lion arrived first at his mother's home, and promptly killed her; the hare, however, before reaching the place where his mother was concealed, stained the point of his spear by thrusting it into the bark of a teak tree; he then went to his mother and said to her, "Mother, the lion and I have agreed to kill each our maternal parent, but I will not do it, though I was afraid to refuse. Go and hide, therefore, in a cave that I know of, in case the lion sees you and wants to kill you too." So having hidden his mother, the hare went back and rejoined his companion. "Well, hare, have you killed her?" "Yes," replied the hare; "look at my spear." So the lion looked at the spear and was deceived by the juice of the teak tree. "Well," said the lion, "what shall we do now?" "I do not know what you are thinking of doing," said the hare, "but, personally, I am going for a walk to the hills." "Very well," said the lion, "we will go together." It was an embarrassing proposal, but there was no help for it. In the course of the way they got separated by a herd of elephants, and the hare scampered off to his mother's cave, where he had an excellent meal.

After eating he gnawed a piece of charcoal, and went and rejoined his friend the lion. "What have you had to eat?" inquired the latter, with a suspicious glance at the hare's bulging sides. "Oh," replied the hare, "I have had nothing but a little piece of charcoal." "Charcoal," said the lion, "how can anybody live on charcoal? Show me your teeth." So the hare showed his teeth, all blackened by the charcoal he had gnawed. Several days passed thus, the hare supported in the meantime by his grateful parent; but at length the lion began to feel surprised that, in spite of so meagre a fare as charcoal, the hare grew fatter and fatter. So he made up his mind to follow and see for himself in what the mystery lay. The next morning, therefore, he put his project into execution, and from the summit of a neighbouring hill he saw the hare enter his mother's cave, and afterwards come forth carrying a large quantity of food which he proceeded leisurely to eat. "Ah," said the lion, "he has deceived me, and did not kill his mother after all." So when he saw the hare depart, the lion went quietly to the door of the cave, and after knocking, said in a soft voice, "Open, mother." "How is this?" answered the hare's mother; "you have only just finished your food, and you are hungry again." "Open, mother," repeated the lion in a still more silky voice. The door was finally opened, and the poor hare's mother drew back appalled at the sight of the lion. "Are you the hare's mother?" he asked in a terrible voice. "Yes, I am," she faintly replied. "Well, I shall kill and eat you, because your son deceived me,"

said the lion ; “ but before I do so, go and bring me all the food you have in the cave.” The old hare did so, and the lion killed and ate her. He then took the food she had laid before him and went away, and presently perceived the hare in the distance. “Hare, come and help me,” he cried ; “ I am weighed down with food.” “ Where did you get it ? ” inquired the other with a sinking heart. “ In a cave in the mountains,” returned the lion. The hare quickly emptied some poison into the food, and after helping the lion home with it, ran off to the cave to see if his mother still lived. One glance showed him what had happened, and weeping bitterly, he went back to where he had left the lion, and found him lying dead.

THE BOY AND THE CANNIBALS

Once upon a time, a man went out to hunt and killed a hartebeeste. So he brought it home and said to his mother, “ Mother, make a fire, and we will eat meat.” But the old woman said, “ If you make a fire and cook the meat, the cannibals who live close by will be sure to smell it and come over and eat us. Eat it raw.” But the man would not, and bade his wife make a fire, but she made the same reply. So he made his small son run to the village where the cannibals lived to get some fire, and told him not to take any meat with him. But the boy disobeyed his parent, and took a small piece to eat on the way. So at last he came to the village and asked for the fire. The cannibals gave him some, but as he was going away they said,

“You smell of meat, where is it?” But the boy denied it, and ran back to his village, hotly pursued, and shouting to his family to hide themselves. This they did, and when the cannibals arrived, they saw the meat of the hartebeeste and ate it; then they searched in the granary, and found the old woman and ate her; they then discovered the boy’s father and ate him; but when the wife fell into their hands, they were already quite full, and told her they would hold her in reserve and eat her on the morrow. But she made a bargain with them that they were to spare her if she gave them the boy who had deceived them and six large jars of beer. So she brought the beer, and then said she would call him. But instead of that she hid herself until the middle of the night, and then went back to where the cannibals lay drunk, and killed them all with a spear.

THE HARE’S CHARM

Two little girls were walking back to the village one morning, each carrying a large pot of water on her head, when the one who walked in front dropped hers, and it fell to the ground and was broken. So she cried, and cried, and was afraid to go home, knowing full well that she would be severely beaten; but her companion said, “Stay here until I go with my pot, and I will see if your mother is really very angry. If she is, I will come and tell you.” So she went to the village and told her companion’s mother what had happened. As she expected, the woman was very angry, so she

returned to where her little friend was waiting on the path, and advised her to go and stay with her relations in a neighbouring village until her mother's anger was forgotten. So the little girl went off to stay with her grandmother, and as she went along the path a hare with a small piece of stick in his mouth suddenly jumped out upon her and said, "Take me up in your arms, and climb a tree quickly, for a lion is following me and wants to eat me." So the little girl climbed up a tree, and immediately afterwards a lion came and looked up at her and said, "Throw the hare down, little girl, for I am hungry." But she refused, whereupon the lion said, "Oh, very well, I will wait here until you come down, and then I will eat you too." The little girl was dreadfully afraid when she heard the lion say that, but the hare said, "Do not be alarmed, little girl. You see the piece of stick I am carrying in my mouth? That is medicine, but only for the men-people; hares cannot use it, but you can. So take it in your fingers and say,

"Pwété,* come and help me ;
Pwété, come and help me ;
Pwété, come quickly."

So she took the stick from him, and repeated the words, and suddenly, with a tremendous rush, a great big rhinoceros came crashing through the forest towards them. The lion jumped up, but before he could get away, the rhinoceros had pierced him through and through with his horn, and galloped off. So the little girl and the hare

* Chi-Lena for Rhinoceros.

came down from the tree, and the hare ran off, leaving his piece of stick in the little girl's hand, so she made a piece of grass-string and tied it round her neck so as not to lose it. She had still a long way to go, and as the day advanced and fatigue crept over her, she lay down under a tree to rest, feeling very hungry. So she took the hare's charm between her fingers and said,

“Mkazi * a nyati, come and give me some milk ;
Mkazi a nyati, come and give me some milk ;
Mkazi a nyati, come quickly.”

There was at once a great commotion in the trees, and a fine cow buffalo came and lay down beside her, so she milked it into a large leaf, and then lay down to sleep. But it was very cold, and she had no fire and no clothes, so she took the charm again and said,

“Nyadzombé,† come and cover me ;
Nyadzombé, come and cover me ;
Nyadzombé, come quickly.”

And a great swarm of locusts came and settled upon her, and protected her from the chilly night air, so that she slept quite well. Early in the morning she was just going to take to the road again, when her mother and all the people from her village, who had been looking for her all night long, came and took her home again ; and they were all so overjoyed to see her safe and well that she was not punished at all.

I wish I could give my readers an idea of the

* Literally, Buffalo's wife.

† A Locust.

entranced attention with which these simple stories, and a hundred like them, are received by African native audiences—and these not of tender years, but grown men and women, who listen to the well-worn recitals open-mouthed, punctuating them with wonder-stricken ejaculations of “Eh-yah,” “Eh-bo-o-o-o,” “Wah-h-h-h,” the palm of the right hand dropped helplessly into that of the left, to signify that the last conceivable condition of wonder has been reached, a sort of “That will do—you cannot beat that” gesture, which is most eloquent.

Such is the African who inhabits the various portions of the valley of the Portuguese Zambezi. He is full of curious superstitions, of which those I have enumerated are but an inconsiderable part. But his quaint beliefs, weird and extraordinary to us who thus look in upon him, are, nevertheless, full of the deepest significance to the negro. In all his goings out and comings in they hedge him about with a system of ceremonial and observance which order the events of his daily life far more remorselessly than would those of civilisation. We see the dusky, immobile face, but the mind, with its mysterious promptings and incomprehensible workings, is as yet hidden from us, and, I doubt not, will long continue to be so. The expression of shamefaced self-consciousness the native assumes, and his nervous laugh when we ask the reason of this or the explanation of that, no more indicate, as many persons suppose, any personal disbelief on his part than if he expounded the matter with exaggerated earnestness. It is only his manner—

his mode of conveying, perhaps all unconsciously, that he is politely endeavouring to satisfy your indecent curiosity against his will, and in violation of his personal feelings.

I think it extremely probable that a time will come when, in its fulness, the African will be found to be possessed in certain directions of no mean measure of natural refinement of feeling, which I suppose civilisation will endeavour to develop; but let not that development come too soon. Do not attempt, I would implore you, to seek to refine and educate him until his indispensable work is done. In the name of Africa's great Future, for which we have assumed such vast responsibility, leave him to do *his* part first.

CHAPTER XIV

THE ZAMBEZIAN CLIMATE

IF you were to visit the regions bordering on the River Zambezi in the winter months of June and July, the climate would awaken an ardent desire in you to remain there for the remainder of your life. It is quite perfect. Warm, brilliant days, with a delicious touch of freshness increasing to an evening sharpness which necessitates flannels and a light overcoat. What could be more delightful? It is a European climate in the land of romance and adventure—a balmy, almost bracing atmosphere in the land of Livingstone and Kirk.

But let us now turn to the reverse side of the picture. Let us contemplate for a brief moment the Zambezi in summer—in the months of November and December. At this time of the year the heat, it must be admitted, is very great, the conditions exhausting in the extreme, and the entire region, from the casual visitor's point of view, an excellent place to get away from. Now are the mosquitoes let loose on the land, and fever, that curse of tropical Africa, rears once more its ill-omened head.

The winter months, or dry season, extend, with

slight variation, from April to November. They are, as I have said, pleasant and healthy in the extreme. Now the traveller and hunter of big game make their appearance; the deciduous trees are leafless; the grasses dry, yellow, and ready for the chance spark or deliberate act which, with the aid of a steady breeze, will turn vast expanses of golden grass-lands into so many hideous, bare deserts of heat-tremulous black. All nature seems to be at a standstill, hibernating, waiting for the warm breath of spring to thaw the congealed sap in the slumbering tree-trunks. The rivers are low. Where, but a few short months since, wide, watery expanses rushed headlong towards the sea, their clay-coloured waters swirling down in a relentless grip great islands of marsh grasses, village *débris* of various kinds, telling of sudden freshets and quick disaster, great tree-trunks, and masses of undergrowth, there now remain but tranquil, placid channels, flowing smilingly at the bottom of steep, cliff-like banks. The morning grasses are heavy with great drops of dew, and dense, white fogs, not unlike the "smokes" of the Guinea Coast, occur often, and frequently remain undispeled until nine or ten o'clock, provoking an astonishing amount of fluent profanity from the masters of the helpless river steamers. A very large proportion of the trees have now no leaves whatever; the grass-fires have devastated the face of the country, and left but the seared and blackened skeletons of grass-canes, of bushes, and shrubs. Beneath one's feet a raffle of fallen forest foliage, dry as so many chips, swirls about in the breeze, and the atmosphere, as

though also seeking to assume a wintry aspect, becomes misty and opaque from the smoke of the numerous fires.

August and September pass, and now the face of the country prepares to cast off its sober, grey, wintry garb, difficult though it may be for dwellers at home to realise that such a term as "wintry" can ever be applicable to the tropical landscapes in which Africa is supposed to be never deficient. With October the heat becomes very great. Vast belts of electrically charged, yellowish cloud, with cumulus, rounded extremities, begin to gather, and at the close of day are seen to be flickering in their murky centres with a menacing tremor of constant lightning. This may go on for a week or more, and then Nature arises like a strong man in his anger, and looses the long pent-up voice of the thunder and the irresistible torrents of the early rains. The first manifestation may come at evening, and is a soul-moving display of natural force.

The day has probably been hotter than usual, and as night draws near the slight breeze of afternoon dies away completely. The air is positively sulphurous, and the smell of the soil is as the smell of sun-dried brick. Away to the southward, a lurid, yellowish grey bank of clouds may be seen mounting higher and higher towards the zenith. The higher it mounts, the faster it appears to travel, whilst the lightning, which plays ceaselessly through and through it, can be distinguished on the far horizon darting downwards in rosy, snaky, tremulous forks. Now, as the vast, luminous mass is almost overhead, we see that the vaporous clouds

of which it consists are swirling madly round and round, and as the first warm drop of rain falls with a splash on the stone verandah, a heavy, sullen peal of thunder echoes with long, hoarse reverberations, to die away in the distance as the storm bursts. White-robed servants fly about, bringing in chairs and hastily closing windows and doors. A gust of icy-cold wind is followed by another and another, and these fill the atmosphere with clouds of red dust, bending down the coconut palms until they resemble so many distracted, shrieking women tearing their hair in an agony of apprehension. The hurricane, by which these disturbances are very frequently accompanied, is now at its height, and the rain, coming down in blinding sheets, in a few moments transforms the dusty red of the long sun-dried roads into rushing streams of dirty water. Now a close, warm smell of rain-damped earth rises from the grateful soil, whilst to a continuous, deafening cannonade of thunder is added an electric display so gorgeous that words seem powerless to convey an idea of the wonder of it. It is hard to imagine the flashes so vivid that against a background of lurid, continuous flickering, which lights up the whole district, forked lightning is so continuous that, at the height of the storm, you frequently see half a dozen of the brilliant zig-zags simultaneously cleaving the sky as though into a number of pieces.

Fortunately these storms are short-lived, for the havoc they create is often serious.

After such a disturbance as the one I have just described, rain is fairly continuous for some time,

and the effect of this copious irrigation makes itself felt in every branch of animal and vegetable life. Within a few days the change is startling; the paths and roadways choke themselves with a rich clothing of newly sprung grasses, whilst the trees, the extremities of whose twigs and branches have been visibly swelling (bourgeoning is, I believe, the unlovely word), now simply leap into leaf and blossom. The mosses, which for months past have looked like dry, bedraggled, colourless rags, regain once more their vivid, tender green. Now the forest throws off its puritanical greyness, and with an activity and rapidity beyond belief, decks itself in flowers of a thousand gorgeous shades of colour, from the chrome-yellow and purple of the papilionaceous trees to the grateful mauve of the evanescent convulvi.

Spring is now upon us, and we feel it. There is that in the atmosphere which moves to procreation, and the forest and the plain with one accord obey. The birds now put on their finest feathers, the animals appear in their brightest hues. Colour and warmth run riot in the brilliantly clear air now washed clean from the mist and smoke which for so many months have obscured it. The clear verdant green of rapid-springing grasses and opening fronds clothes the landscape, and the distant peaks of the mountains lose their pale, bluey-grey haziness, and stand boldly out in the light of the sun. The months succeed each other, bringing with them new and strange beauties, for summer is now at its height, and trees and flowers at their most perfect period. Then, after a few weeks

of heat and quiescence, comes the second phase. The rain, which about midsummer holds off for a time, now deluges the earth in tremendous downfalls, thunderstorms are frequent, and floods occur. April comes, and suddenly Nature holds her hand. The swollen rivers and inundated plains shake themselves free from the redundant waters. The grasses have now reached a formidable height, and the sorely encumbered earth looks for fire to rid it of this immense mass of useless vegetation. So the rains now cease, and the land begins to dry up. Rich greens turn to copper, and brown, and yellow, and little by little, with the advent of May, the winter returns with its sober greyness.

On the Zambezi the rainfalls are often astonishingly heavy, and have been known to continue without intermission for a day and a half at a time. The annual measurement varies more than can be accounted for, however, but probably averages about forty to forty-two inches. Naturally in the hills it is considerably more than this, but on the whole I should think the amounts mentioned would be found to be a fair average on most of the well-forested lower levels. It must not, of course, be supposed that rain falls daily, even at the height of the wet season. Sometimes none may fall for a week or ten days, or—about the middle of December—even longer. The heavier falls occur about the latter end of the African summer, which occasionally prolongs itself into May, but fortunately not very often.

The summer temperature, especially in the vicinity of the river, is without doubt exceedingly

trying. I have experienced midday shade temperatures of 110° and 112° Fahrenheit on many occasions, whilst often until long after sunset they have not seemed to sensibly decline. This, in the moist, rainy season, when the atmosphere is surcharged with humidity, is very hard to bear, and doubtless has much to do with the enfeebled condition of system which, when, later on, the unhealthy season comes, gives way so easily to the ravages of fever and other diseases. But the winter temperatures are delightful, and probably rarely exceed 75° , whilst at night they may sink to anything between 50° and 60° . Of course, in the more elevated regions, the temperatures are still lower. On some of the mountains, especially on the high plateau of Morambala, for example, I am assured that during June and July slight frosts are by no means infrequent; but although hail occasionally comes to alarm the natives during serious atmospheric disturbances, snow is wholly unknown, even on the highest peaks. During the winter (May to October) extremely heavy dews fall nightly; indeed, after walking through high grass for a short distance, one's clothing becomes as completely wetted through as though by a heavy shower of rain, and from this it is easy to catch a chill which may lead to serious complications.

Although within the area of cyclones, I do not think they often occur. Storms of wind of great violence are, however, not infrequent about the periods of the equinox, and cause a considerable amount of damage, not only to plantations and manufactures, but also to the river transport. At times

these storms are a source of danger to passengers and cargo, and cases have occurred of barges ladened with valuable goods breaking loose from their tow-ropes and foundering before measures could be taken to recover them. Certainly none of those frightful cyclonic disturbances are ever reported which on the coast of the Province of Mozambique make their periodical disastrous appearances. I speak without authority, but I do not think they make their presence felt very far from the sea-board, and if this be correct, dwellers in the inland regions have indeed much to be grateful for.

With its many beauties and attractions, however ; with all its possibilities of future importance, and even present value, I could not truthfully say that Zambezia can yet call itself a healthy part of Africa. Its perils to health, it is true, are not numerous, but, assuredly, few there be who wholly escape them. I have often asserted that people in Europe have many more dangers to health to avoid than those who live in Africa, and the truth of this statement will be sufficiently apparent when we come to reflect that in those portions of the latter continent with which we are now concerning ourselves, the only serious endemic maladies consist of malaria and dysentery. Occasionally one hears of a case of pneumonia, and from time to time small-pox makes its appearance, but happily in a form which apparently does not attack Europeans. We have, therefore, only two dangers to provide against, but their avoidance, I must confess, is a matter of no mean difficulty.

When the rains are over, and the sodden earth is

drying itself in the sun after its prolonged annual shower-bath, its exhalations, mingling with the unhealthy odour of the now rapidly decaying vegetation, are distinctly prejudicial to the health of the white man. This time of year, moreover, as we have just seen, finds the human system less buoyant, less capable of resistance, owing to the enervating, weakening effect of the long period of torrid heat which has but now come to a close. The mosquitoes are still extremely numerous ; and all these influences acting in unison strew malaria broadcast along the banks of the Zambezi.

In spite of all these menaces, however, the whole secret of the maintenance of health at this, or any other time of the year, may be summed up in two words which should be written in letters of gold—Moderation and Care—moderation in all things relating to the creature comforts of life, and care to avoid sudden chills and needless exposure to the sun.

Nowadays, thanks to the introduction of forms of nourishment by home providers which enable the remotest exile to furnish himself with an excellent and varied selection of palatable and highly nutritious forms of food, one hears less of the terrible waves of fatal forms of malarial sickness which were wont, years ago, from time to time, to literally decimate the country. We have, I fancy, discovered a manner of life which enables us, if not wholly to bid defiance to the rigours of climate, at least to take such precautions as enable us to minimise their virulence, and to fortify our systems against the day of their attack.

My own rule, and that of nearly all my contemporaries of the early nineties, has been to abstain from nothing whose moderate use at home would be beneficial, but somewhat to vary the hours at which certain articles of diet—notably stimulants—are taken. In one's own house, and in conditions in which but slight exposure to the sun need be incurred, stimulants with the midday meal are in no way harmful, and may be beneficial; but I do not advocate their use when, either in the form of outdoor work or marching, considerable heat has to be subsequently experienced. I must, I fear, plead guilty to being a great believer in the efficacy of the sunset whisky and soda. My view of the matter is that this, the first spirit which should be partaken of during the day, is rendered necessary by the fact that late afternoon is the time at which the day's fatigue first begins to be seriously felt. Clearly, therefore, it is the hour at which the human organisation requires assisting. I have been told that the two occasions in the twenty-four hours at which most deaths from natural causes occur fall at about 4 a.m. and in the late afternoon; and, although I do not desire to be understood as advocating precautionary measures in the middle of the night, as it were, yet I feel that nothing but benefit can result from adopting them when the rim of the sun disappears below the horizon. Wholesome Portuguese red and white wines form excellent beverages for ordinary occasions, and are much less liable to disturb the functions of the body than beer, except perhaps the lightest Lager.

But the fact should by no means be lost sight of

that in Africa excess of food is almost if not quite as dangerous as too much drink. A man in a temperate climate who perpetrates the coarse indiscretion of eating too much, usually finds that a dose of medicine removes all fear of subsequent inconvenience. Not so in Africa. It may do so, of course, but biliousness is a condition which literally invites fever, and bilious fever is a form of sickness which has created great havoc in European circles.

In a word, therefore, although Zambezia presents certain dangers common to almost the whole of tropical Africa, the man of careful habits, who is abstemious without abstaining, is far more likely to support the exigencies of the climate than the misguided individual who obstinately abstains because he has been told that it is his only chance of safety.

I suppose one day the true *cause* of malaria will be found and stamped out. The reason I italicise the word "cause" is that, so far as I can understand, the *origin* of the scourge is still hidden from us. We know that the *Anopheles* mosquito transmits the germ which propagates the fever microbe which feeds upon your red blood-corpuscles. But he must get that germ from somewhere or somebody. Medical science, by teaching us to keep out the mosquito, has done much to enable us to support life in tropical Africa; but one cannot but feel that the real moment of self-congratulation will have come when we are able to assure ourselves that we can at last place our fingers upon the element whence the *Anopheles*

supplied himself with his mischievous germ, and can take measures to strike boldly at the root of the evil.

But even as we now find it, much may be done to avoid fever on the one hand, or so to lessen the malignity of its attacks that they do not inflict much injury upon the system. The first necessity is a good, comfortable, double-storied house. This should be well ventilated and furnished with an upstairs verandah twelve feet in width, mosquito-proofed all the way round with efficient, small-mesh copper net. Even the selection of the site is an important matter, and care should be taken to avoid low levels, especially in the vicinity of stagnant water or clay soil. I always think that the best positions are those from which water runs off, or into which it sinks easily. In this way nothing could be better than sand, which, if the depth be sufficient, not only affords the best possible foundation, but is extremely healthy. Then, ventilation is a point which often does not receive sufficient attention. Pure air is of the highest consequence, especially in the sleeping rooms. That the atmosphere of a bedchamber is impure is not always perceptible to its occupant; yet not only the air breathed, which is thus deprived of its oxygen, but the impurities thrown off by the skin, gases produced by the flames of candles, and lastly, the invisible forms of life contained in almost everything the apartment holds, produce a necessity for a constant supply of pure air, and for the removal of that heated and vitiated in the process of consumption.

But a constant supply of air must in no wise be permitted to assume the proportions of a draught, than which there is probably no greater danger to health in a country to which almost every ailment suffered can be traced directly or indirectly to the chill a draught produces. After exercise of a heating character, therefore, no time should be lost in bathing in warm water, assuming dry clothing, and avoiding at all cost the least semblance of a cold current of air.

For many years after my first arrival in Africa it was the custom of cautious persons to guard against malaria by taking considerable daily doses of quinine. But, for my own part, I did not adopt the practice, first of all because I disliked taking quinine constantly—or any other form of drug, for the matter of that—and secondly because I observed that the habit had an injurious effect upon the digestive functions, which were not seldom thrown completely out of gear. As events have since proved, I was instinctively and unconsciously inclining in the right direction, for it has now come to be acknowledged that the properties of quinine as a prophylactic are sufficiently preserved in the system by taking the drug in moderately full doses twice a week only, on consecutive evenings. This is now the practice in even the most malarious districts of Nyasaland, and its adoption has been attended with the most satisfactory results.

There can be no doubt, when one comes to recall to mind the physical condition of those settlers who have spent a considerable number of years in this

part of the continent, that the climate reacts in the long run more or less prejudicially upon the constitutions of most of them. Even with all the care which is nowadays taken to study and observe such rules of health as up-to-date medical research has so painstakingly and successfully drawn up for the benefit of the European in Africa, it is impossible to get away from the fact that the climatic effect reacts adversely. To begin with, I understand, after a number of years in the tropics the body temperature becomes appreciably higher than would be apparent in the case of a person residing in temperate climates. Then, very commonly, the kidneys become affected by the restricted secretion of the urine caused by the exceedingly large proportion of moisture given off by the skin and lungs. Finally, it is a perfectly well-recognised fact that all persons who reside in the tropics become anæmic, partly from the effect of the destruction of the red blood-corpuscles by fever, and partly from the less nourishing character of the food. The nervous system also assuredly becomes less buoyant, and the general vitality is lowered.

The only steps which I take, in addition to carefully observing the ordinary rules of hygiene and health, are to keep my blood as thick and as red as possible by means of tonics—especially iron. A preparation known as Wyeth's Dyalised Iron is the best I know for this purpose; it is handy and palatable, and I have derived great benefit from it.

In spite of the last few paragraphs, with their alarming hints and darkly outlined possibilities,

however, I do not consider that, on the whole, Zambezia is more unhealthy or exhausting than any other part of South Central Africa. Its climate is trying only during the summer months, and its unhealthy period of rainy summer is one which can be successfully supported if proper regard be paid to reasonable precautions.

CHAPTER XV

CONCLUSION

As one of the not very numerous throng of those remaining who have witnessed the gradual improvement which has taken place in *Zambezia* of recent years, I trust that the not distant future may enable still greater strides to be made, and I would especially hope for these in the direction of railway enterprise and the improvement of transport and communication.

Those who have had the patience to read the foregoing chapters will have seen that in this vast and fertile district, which I am satisfied is capable of producing immense quantities of valuable exports, the chief difficulties which stand in the way of the man who would otherwise be prepared to invest his small capital in agricultural or other pursuits are those which prevent him from getting his produce to the coast. Nothing eats into your profits like cost of transport; and from the moment that, in addition to river freight to the ocean steamer, land portorage to the river must be paid as well, it is time to figure out your estimates carefully, and see how much margin your expenses leave you.

Such a railway as I have advocated between

Quelimane and the British frontier of Nyasaland, at some point which would enable it to join the recently completed Blantyre and Port Herald section, would do more to foster the prosperity of Zambezia than any other scheme which could be devised for its advancement. This assured, I can see in the not remote future the city of Quelimane rivalling in importance the largest and busiest centres in the whole of East Africa.

No absolute prodigies of organisation are necessary to make this a producing region of the first importance. It possesses many climates, several soils, an infinity of marketable indigenous growths, and valuable minerals. Added to all these, the unhealthiness of its worst months is, as I have stated, no worse than would be found in Nyasaland or Rhodesia, whilst the necessities of life are plentiful and inexpensive.

With an interest, therefore, which one naturally feels for a part of the world whereof one has so many pleasant recollections, I look to the next few years to bring to Zambezia that prosperity which I have every confidence her natural resources will enable her to sustain and increase. In a continent possessing so many huge expanses of useless, undesirable country, we cannot disregard those which are rich, not only in vague, unsubstantial promise, but in actual achievement and work well done. Of these latter Zambezia is assuredly one, whilst her natural advantages are so numerous, and her possibilities so infinite, that her future will unquestionably prove as bright as her past has been stormy.

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